DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 411 451 CE 074 782

AUTHOR	Sharpe, Tina; Thompson, Julie
TITLE	Accessing Learning: Language and Literacy Development in Key Learning Areas.
INSTITUTION	Catholic Education Office, Sydney (Australia).; Assoication of Independent Schools of New South Wales, Ltd., Sydney (Australia).
SPONS AGENCY	Australian Dept. of Employment, Education and Training, Canberra.
ISBN	ISBN-1-863051-5; ISBN-1-86382-052-3; ISBN-1-86382-053-1
PUB DATE	1993-00-00
NOTE	1101p.
AVAILABLE FROM	Catholic Education Office, P.O. Box 217, Leichhardt, New South Wales 2040, Australia ($150 Australian).
PUB TYPE	Guides - Classroom - Teacher (052)
EDRS PRICE	EDRS Price MF8 Plus Postage. PC Not Available from EDRS.
DESCRIPTORS	Behavioral Objectives; Business; Catholic Educators; Catholic Schools; Classroom Techniques; Content Area Reading; Design; Foreign Countries; *Functional Literacy; Geography; Geography Instruction; History; History Instruction; *Inservice Teacher Education; Integrated Curriculum; Job Skills; Learning Activities; Learning Modules; Lesson Plans; *Literacy Education; Multimedia Instruction; Postsecondary Education; Secondary Education; Teacher Improvement; Teacher Student Relationship; Teaching Methods; Technology; *Technology Education
IDENTIFIERS	*Australia (New South Wales); *Metalanguages

ABSTRACT

This package of training materials is intended for use in a professional development program for teachers of two courses in New South Wales: Human Society and the Environment and Technological and Applied Studies. The package consists of nine booklets and a course outline for each course. The first module contains the following: introduction to the package; 44-item bibliography; and report summarizing the project during which 3 organizations concerned with Catholic education in New South Wales (Australia) developed the program to help teachers understand the language demands of their classrooms and learn a metalanguage for discussing those language demands with their students. The modules, which may be presented in an eight-module course or eight workshops, cover the following topics: the teaching/learning cycle; a functional view of language; language used for describing; language used for recounting; language used for instructing; language used for explaining; and language used for challenging. Included in the course outline are the transparency masters and handouts for each module of the course and sample units for history, geography, commerce, and design and technology classrooms. Each sample unit contains subject-specific instructions and resources for using language in the ways described in the course modules. (MN)

ED 411 451

Accessing Learning

Language and Literacy Development in Key Learning Areas

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ACCESSING LEARNING

outline

LANGUAGE AND LITERACY DEVELOPMENT IN KEY LEARNING AREAS

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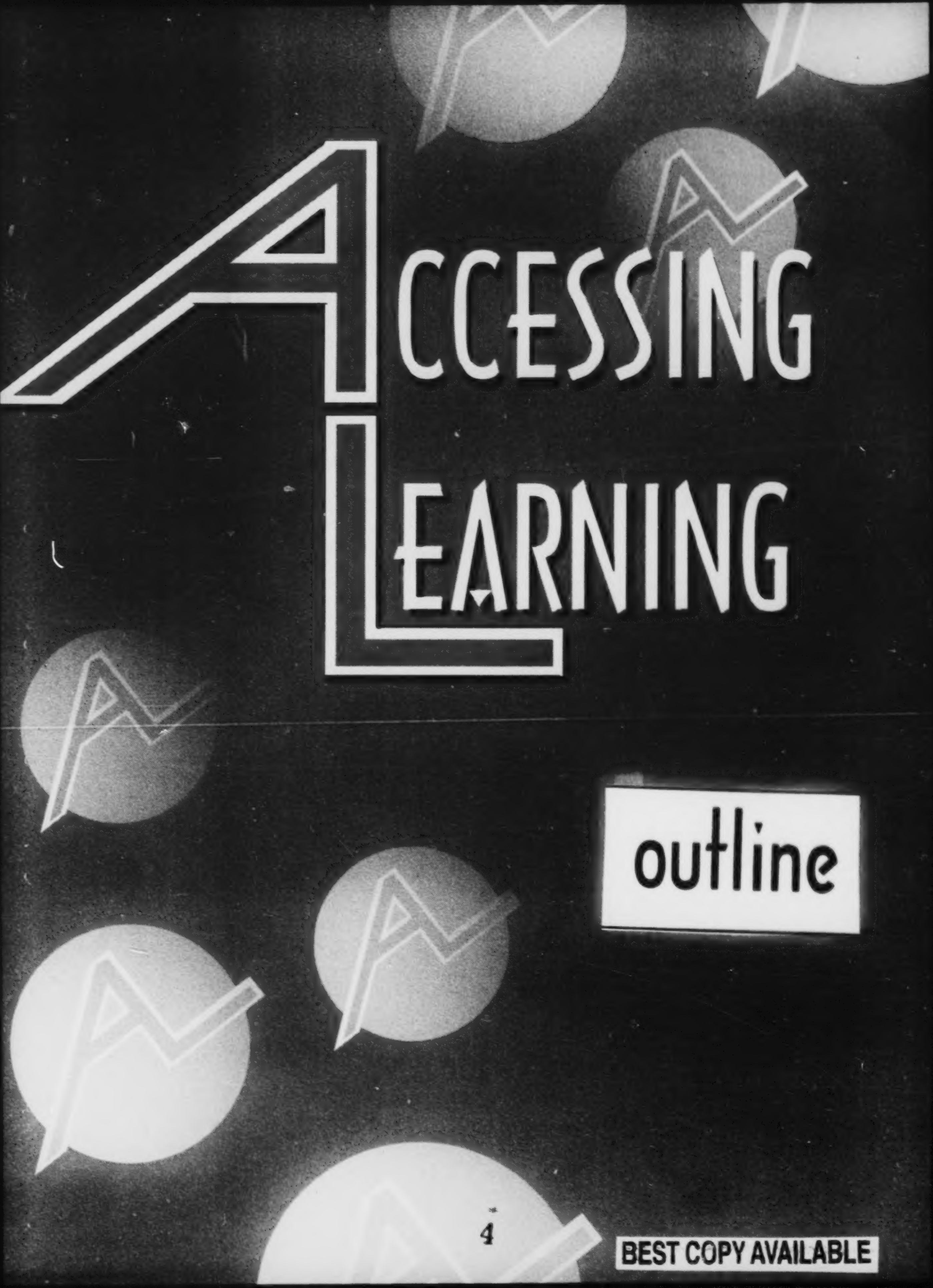

ACCESSING LEARNING

outline

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The *Accessing Learning* Professional Development Course is presented in three folders:

1. Outline and Modules One to Eight
   Video 1, Part 1: Introduction to *Accessing Learning*
   Part 2: History - Survey Writing
   Video 2: Design and Technology - Describing

2. Blackline Masters
   Video 3: Geography - Challenging

3. Classroom Units
   Commerce
   History
   Geography
   Design and Technology

ISBN 1 86382 051 5 (The complete kit)
1 86382 052 3 (The Outline and all Modules)
1 86382 053 1 (The Blackline Masters)

Funded through the Literacy and Learning General Element, Commonwealth Department of Employment, Education and Training.

Printed and published by the Catholic Education Office, P.O. Box 217, Leichhardt NSW 2040.
Phone (02) 569 6111 Fax (02) 550 0052

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Accessing Learning Professional Development Course has been developed co-operatively by the Catholic Education Office, Sydney and The Association of Independent Schools of New South Wales Limited in conjunction with the Catholic Education Offices of Armidale, Maitland and Wollongong.

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The series of three videos was produced by Mediacast Pty Ltd.

The project managers thank the Principals, staff and students of the following schools involved in the video.

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Casimir Catholic College, Marrickville, NSW

St Catherine's School, Waverley, NSW

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Funding and Support

This project has been funded through the Literacy and Learning General Element, Commonwealth Department of Employment, Education and Training.

The project team also wishes to acknowledge the **Board of Studies NSW**, the **State Pollution Control Commission** and the **Sydney Water Board** for the use of their materials and for their support of the project.

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module five

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ABOUT THE MATERIALS

The *Accessing Learning* Professional Development Course has been developed by the Catholic Education Office, Sydney and The Association of Independent Schools New South Wales Limited (AIS), in conjunction with the Catholic Education Offices of Armidale, Wollongong and Maitland. It has been funded through the Literacy and Learning General Element by the Department of Employment, Education and Training. In accordance with Commonwealth funding requirements, the course is targeted specifically at improving the participation and achievement of disadvantaged young people in junior secondary schools (Commonwealth Programs for Schools: Administrative Guidelines 1992:65).

The purpose of the *Accessing Learning* Professional Development Course is to assist teachers of Human Society and its Environment (HSIE) and Technological and Applied Studies (TAS) to develop a greater understanding of the language demands of their particular subject areas. It provides a systematic way of incorporating a language focus into content teaching and enabling students to recognise and produce the characteristic writing of these subjects.

The outcome of the *Accessing Learning* course for teachers will be the ability to assist students to be aware of the language demands of the reading and writing tasks asked of them, and to develop the tools to complete them successfully.

The course provides teachers with a shared and explicit description of the language demands of their subjects and a metalanguage (a way of talking about language) with which to discuss these demands with their students.

It offers effective teaching/learning strategies that are appropriate to History, Geography, Commerce, and Design and Technology. They deal with the move from: 1

- ☐ the everyday to the technical;
- ☐ the particular to the general;
- ☐ the personal to the impersonal;
- ☐ the spoken-like to the written-like.

In this way teachers will be equipped to articulate clear criteria for success and to make them explicit to students. They will be able to assist them to move from commonsense, everyday language to the kinds of technical, academic discourses required by the school curriculum, and so to become apprenticed into the kind of writing valued by the educational community.

THE KEY LEARNING AREAS

Accessing Learning examines the language demands of the Key Learning Areas:

2

- **Human Society and its Environment,** with particular emphasis on History, Geography and Commerce.
- **Technological and Applied Studies,** with particular emphasis on Design and Technology.

There have been significant changes in NSW school education in recent years. The creation of Key Learning Areas which incorporate a number of previously discrete subjects has led to both the development of new syllabuses such as Design and Technology, and the major rewriting of syllabuses such as History and Geography which now include 100-hour mandatory components.

The History and Geography syllabuses Year 7–10 both contain Outcome Statements for Stages 4 and 5. These, although expressed in terms of cognitive development, have very specific implications for the type of language required by students to be successful. Students require control over many text-types that are not only cognitively demanding but also linguistically complex.

The Design and Technology syllabus requires a shift from the traditional manual arts and home science courses and places many more linguistic demands on students than they did, as they are expected to not only to design and make an object, but also to evaluate its effectiveness and communicate this through a folio.

A FUNCTIONAL VIEW OF LANGUAGE

Accessing Learning is based on the functional model of language developed by M.A.K. Halliday (1985) and the associated work of J.R. Martin on genre theory.

Language and purpose

A functional theory of language is based on the view that language is a resource for making meaning. It argues that language is purposeful social behaviour. We use language to do things and the ways we use language will differ from one context to another. For example, we recount how we got a flat tyre differently from the way we give people instructions on how to change a flat tyre—the purpose for which we use language significantly affects the way it is used, that is, the deliberate language choices we make.

This project aims to extend the repertoire of language choices available to students for use in their writing, as well as to develop an understanding of the effects these have on their writing. It will also enable students to better understand the language they read and hear.

Genre theory

Genre theory is concerned with identifying different types of text or 'genres' which are used in a culture to achieve particular purposes. Genre theory makes explicit to students the language required for specific social purposes.

RESEARCH BASE

The *Accessing Learning* course has been based on actual research findings rather than on commonly held assumptions. Using a functional model of language, the language demands of a number of subjects in Human Society and its Environment and Technological and Applied Studies were researched by Peter Wignell of the University of the Northern Territory.

A summary of the language demands of the subjects in Technological and Applied Studies and in Human Society and its Environment appears below. A report of the research undertaken appears on page 19.

> One feature of Technological and Applied Studies subjects is that they are about doing things. They use language to set out why you need to do certain things, what you need to use to do something and how to do it, for example, following written instructions on the use of some kind of machine. In other words, there is a general shift from language to action, using language in order to do things.
>
> On the other hand, in a subject like History there is a need to be able to use language to find out what happened and to generalise from what happened to an interpretation of what those events mean. The shift is in the opposite direction from the shift in Technological and Applied Studies subjects. There is a move from language close to the action, to language which is more abstract.
>
> In a subject like Geography there is a move in both directions. The move is from language to action, (for example, doing field work) and then back into more abstract language to interpret what you have observed.
>
> All these subjects use language in different ways such as moving from technical language into action, and moving from concrete language into abstract and technical language.
>
> What often happens in student writing is that students do not make these shifts successfully. For example, in History students often stick close to retelling the story without getting into what the story means or interpreting it, or in Geography, they often only get as far as describing something without interpreting what they have described, that is, they don't show how things fit into a wider framework of concepts. Language uses different resources to make the kinds of shifts described above and if students do not have control over these ways of using language then they are unable to do what is expected. These moves do not usually come naturally, they need to be taught and learnt.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

The genre approach to teaching writing is concerned with looking at the text-types that occur in different subjects, for example reports, procedures, discussions, explanations. Learning how to write in a particular subject is not only learning how to deal with discrete genres, but also understanding how these genres function in relation to each other and how they function in relation to the subject in which they are embedded.

To understand these relationships across subjects, the course writers have grouped together genres that serve similar purposes. The term *macro-function* has been coined to refer to the general purpose served by a grouping of genres. Academic language has evolved in order to describe the world, to recount, to instruct, to explain, or to challenge knowledge in each subject. These processes (of describing, recounting etc) are then made real by particular genres which students are expected to understand and reproduce. Macro-functions are everyday categories that will help teachers and students see the interrelationship between different genres that are realising a similar purpose (the same macro-function) as well as the texts that are similar across subjects.

Figure 1 on page five outlines the relationship between subjects, macro-functions and genres. The **macro-functions** in *Accessing Learning* are:

Describing;
Recounting;
Instructing;
Explaining;
Challenging.

As can be seen from **Figure 1**, some macro-functions are integral to all subjects, whereas others are relevant to some subjects only. The macro-functions can be a means of talking about the relationship between and across genres and subjects. Each macro-function is presented in a separate language description in the course. Classroom Units have been written for the macro-functions of each subject. These are found in a separate folder.

3

Macro-functions	History	Commerce	Geography	Design & Technology	Genres	Texts
Describing	√	√	√	√	reports - taxonomic - descriptive	definitions field work reports descriptions information reports
Recounting	√	√			narratives recount - biography - historical	biographies narratives myths
Instructing		√	√	√	procedures protocols	directions recipes manuals procedures
Explaining	√	√	√		explanation account	explanation essays accounts (how, why)
Challenging	√	√	√	√	arguments discussion	debates essays

Figure 1: The macro-functions, genres and texts of History, Commerce, Geography, Design & Technology

PEDAGOGY

Rationale

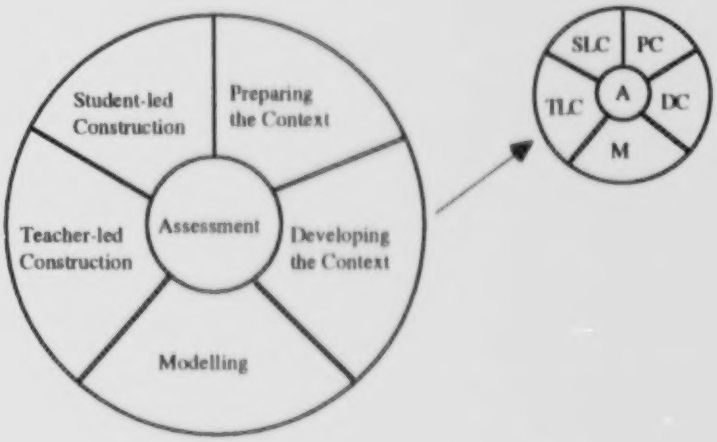
Using evidence from Piaget (1973), some teachers are concerned that an issues-based approach to programming severely disadvantages those students not yet at the stage of formal operations. The work of Bruner (1978) on the spiral curriculum suggests that by couching new information and ideas within the previous experience of students it is reasonable to expect that they will be able to achieve outcomes such as stated in the current NSW History, Geography, Design and Technology Syllabuses Y7-10.

Vygotsky (1986) also supports this view. He saw the intellectual development of children as growing out of their social interaction with significant adults in their lives. He believed it was this interaction, rather than age or maturation, that led children to acquire the cognitive skills necessary in problem solving.

> What the child can do in cooperation today, he [sic] can do alone tomorrow.
>
> (Vygotsky, 1986: p 188)

Accessing Learning offers a teaching/learning cycle based on a spiral approach to curriculum design, modelling, meaningful interaction, and negotiation, which consistently incorporates a language focus into content teaching.

The teaching/learning cycle


Student-led Construction
Preparing the Context
Assessment
Teacher-led Construction
Developing the Context
Modelling
SLC
PC
TLC
A
DC
M

4

Figure 2: The teaching/learning cycle

The teaching/learning cycle in Figure 2 provides a way to take the knowledge in the language descriptions and embed it into content teaching. It consists of five stages the teacher moves through in order to consistently incorporate a language focus into content teaching. In this way students are supported with and informed about writing in the target genre. The teacher moves around the teaching/learning cycle each time the students are expected to write in a different genre.

USING THE MATERIALS

The materials constitute a course of study of the main language patterns of History, Commerce, Geography, and Design and Technology, and are intended for use by individuals or groups of colleagues. There are core language descriptions which are accompanied by teaching/learning activities showing how to integrate the language theory into classroom practice. These are illustrated by videos and units of work for the clasroom in each subject.

The materials are presented in three folders:

Folder 1	Nine booklets: this Outline, and Modules One to Eight, containing the core language descriptions and teaching/learning activities Video 1, Part 1: Introduction Part 2: History cycle - survey writing
Folder 2	Blackline Masters for running the modules as workshops Video 2: Design and Technology - describing
Folder 3	Classroom Units History: Parts One to Four Commerce: Parts One to Five Geography: Parts One to Four Design and Technology: Parts One to Three Video 3: Geography cycle

WORKSHOPS

The materials can be read as an individual study program or undertaken by groups as a series of eight workshops, each one based on a core module. (Module One is done in conjunction with sections of this Outline.) Two to three hours should be allowed for all workshops except the shorter final module.

Figure 3 shows how the modules, videos and classroom units are organised into workshops.

Figure 3

Work-shop	Module		Video	Classroom Units
1	Outline			
	The teaching/ learning cycle		Video 1 Parts 1 and 2	
2	Introduction to a functional view of language			
3	The language we use for describing Introduction to the Classroom Units	Reworking a student text	Video 2	History Pt 1 Geography Pt 1 Commerce Pt 1 Design and Technology Pt 1
4	The language we use for recounting	Jigsaw		History Pt 2 Commerce Pt 2
5	The language we use for instructing	Cloze		Geography Pt 2 Commerce Pt 3 Design and Technology Pt 2
6	The language we use for explaining	Dictogloss		History Pt 3 Geography Pt 3 Commerce Pt 4
7	The language we use for challenging	Critical literacy	Video 3	History Pt 4 Geography Pt 4 Commerce Pt 5 Design and Technology Pt 3
8	Conclusion			

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The materials are designed to be interactive. Each page of the language descriptions has three primary areas:

- The left hand column is for headings and notes for the independent learner.
- The central text provides the individual learner and workshop leader with content, activities and instructions.
- Icons, instructions and items in the right-hand column are for the sole use of the workshop leader. They are primarily to cue the workshop leader to what to proceed with.

Throughout you will be directed to undertake activity tasks or view certain sections of the videos. In most cases the activity tasks are suitable for both individual learner and workshop participants; alternatives are provided in the text when this is not so.

Although you work through the **classroom units** which relate to your specific subject, the unrelated units provide further ideas for classroom activities so we suggest that examination of these other units would be beneficial.

ORGANISING THE COURSE AS WORKSHOPS

It is possible to work through the course in single-subject groups (History or Geography or Commerce), or in mixed subject groups (History and Commerce etc).

6 and 6-1

The course could be organised in various patterns:

- as a four-day inservice program, either four intensive days or spaced over a period of time.
- as an initial full-day for Modules One and Two, with six subsequent 2–3 hour workshops.
- eight 2–3 hour workshops.

As the course offers teachers an approach which is detailed and which aims to add new dimensions to their classroom practice, the writers suggest that workshops held over a period of time in which teachers can absorb and reflect on the approach, as well as engage in experimenting with ideas in their classrooms, would best support the potential of the course.

THE ROLE OF WORKSHOP COORDINATORS

The role of coordinating workshops for *Accessing Learning* in the school may be undertaken by one person or a small team, with each team member taking responsibility for specific workshops. It is a relatively easy task to divide the modules among three or four persons. It is advisable to have one individual coordinating the setting up of the workshop times, location, module coordinators and participants. The module coordinators should then be able to concentrate on running the module, which includes preparation of the overhead transparencies and handout materials from the **Blackline Masters,** and copies of the relevant **Classroom Units**.

Equipment

There are only a few items of equipment required and these should be readily available in the school:

- an overhead projector;
- a VHS video player and monitor;
- tables and seating that allow for large and small group work.

Location

The location will depend upon the number at the workshop. If the participants are free to move around when appropriate, free from excess noise, drafts and interruptions, you will find coordination a pleasant responsibility and the process a pleasant one for all.

Materials

All modules have handouts and overhead transparencies (Blackline Masters) that accompany the text. They have been placed together in a separate folder. It is permissible to copy all blackline masters for use in the school. It is a good idea to rehearse the use of the handouts and transparencies as you re-read the text material with each module.

Advice

It is important to remember that these materials have been written to be worked through in a particular sequence. While the writers have no control over how the materials are studied, we would point out that to fully appreciate the integration of the language descriptions with classroom practice, it would be best to follow the suggested format.

Many activities, such as viewing a video segment or interpreting a piece of writing, are common to workshops and individual learners. It is always a temptation for a person studying alone to bypass the activities and continue to read the content. It is certainly a good idea to initially read through a section to establish the content. However, returning to it for a thorough study and examination is essential. The fundamental orientation behind these materials is one of **process** and consequently we recommend and encourage you to participate fully in that process. Much of the content is elaborated and reinforced through the activities.

We suggest you begin to implement the strategies recommended in *Accessing Learning* as soon as you are confident to do so. This will enable you to reflect on their use in the classroom and to return to these materials for clarification and support.

In exploring and testing out ideas and approaches recommended in these materials, it is valuable for you to discuss them with your colleagues, who can be a source of encouragement and support for you.

Another important aspect of learning is keeping a learning journal. This will become a resource to you for planning classroom activities and evaluating their success and degree of effectiveness. If entries are made on a regular basis writing the journal will become an easy process. Do not tire yourself with long or elaborate entries unless you are comfortable doing so. If it is a new approach to learning, remember that the quality of the entries is more important than the quantity.

SETTING UP COURSE REQUIREMENTS

As an individual working through the course you may choose to simply work your way through the modules.

A collegial group may negotiate more formal requirements on participants, such as those which are commonly adopted in university professional development situations. One such set of requirements which we have found useful in supporting the outcomes of *Accessing Learning* follows:

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☐ attendance and participation in sessions;
☐ learning journal;
☐ workshop presentation of classroom sample lesson;
☐ major classroom unit of work.

The major unit of work would require participants to develop a unit of work to be used with a current group of students. It is suggested that this unit be of the order of 15 to 20 school lessons and include detailed lesson plans and some materials. Participants would also be expected to provide a rationale for the unit of work, including details of the school and curriculum context, and student profile and needs analysis. They would also have to either discuss the perceived difficulties of the unit or, in the case of those who have been able to trial their unit in the classroom, give a journal-style report on the presentation and outcomes of the unit.

The workshop presentation would require participants to present one lesson from their developing unit of work for discussion by the group.

The learning journal would require participants not only to log their learning during the sessions and while reading and examining the Classroom Units between sessions, but also to document classroom experiences and experiments relevant to the subject.

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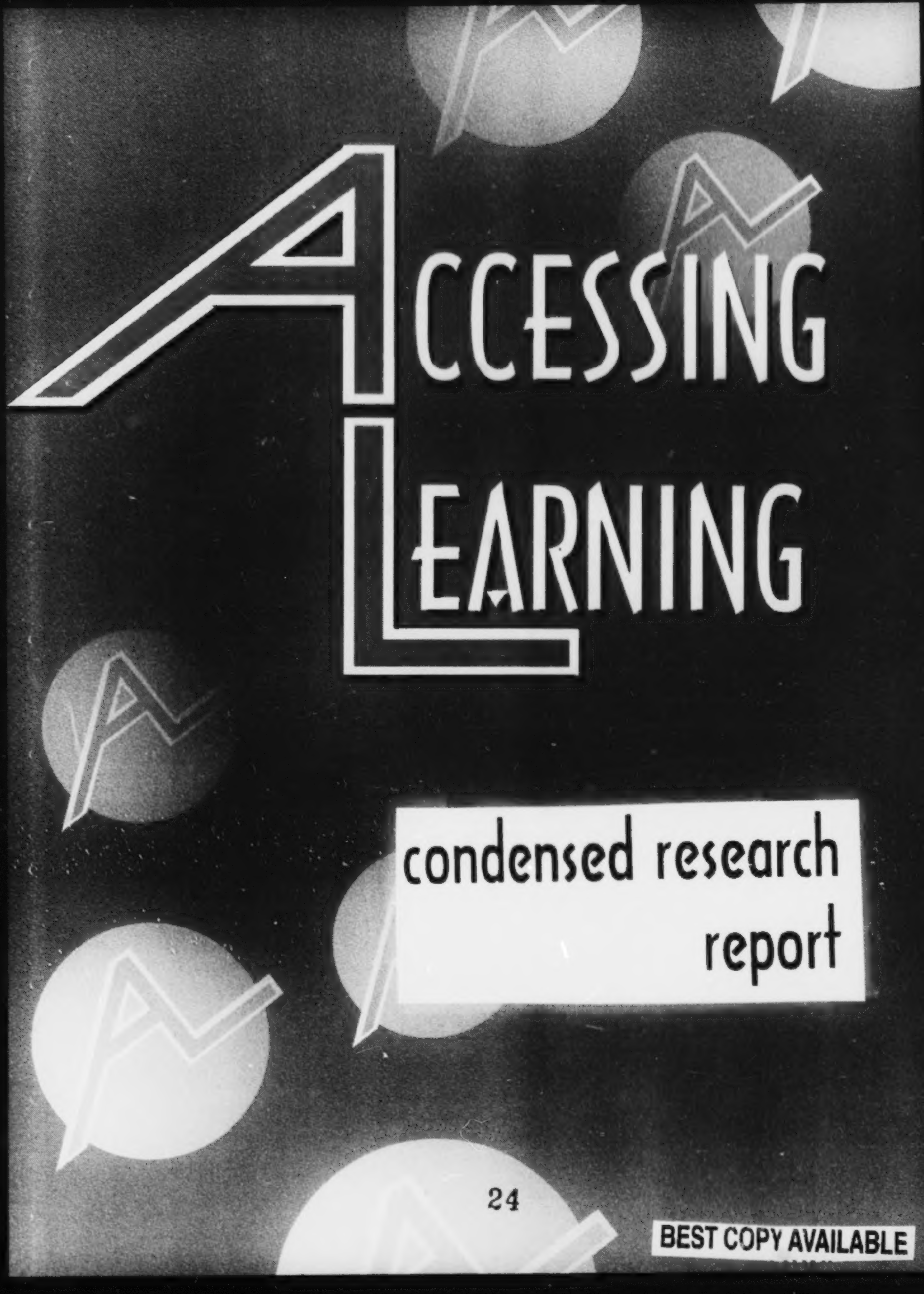

ACCESSING LEARNING

condensed research report

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CONDENSED RESEARCH REPORT

INTRODUCTION

This paper presents a summary and discussion of the linguistic research conducted for the *Accessing Learning* project. **It is therefore not necessary to read this prior to the beginning of the course.** You may prefer to return to it after completing the course when the technical terminology it uses will be more familiar. This report is intended to be read as an adjunct to the whole package. Detailed linguistic descriptions have been omitted. The paper examines the patterns of language found in different secondary school subjects and likely changes to them as a result of the move into Key Learning Areas.

The main ideas behind this part of the project were:

1) to assess the kinds of changes that are likely to occur as a result of changing to Key Learning Areas;

2) to identify typical language patterns in a representative cross-section of current secondary school subjects;

3) to consider how these patterns of language functioned within the subjects.

IMPLICATIONS OF KLAs

The following is a summary of the main findings in 1) above.

Because of the multidisciplinary nature of the Key Learning Areas, the linguistic distinctions between subjects will become less clear and a need for students to control a general set of literacy skills extendible across a range of subjects is likely to result. Where at present students of, for example, History have different literacy demands placed on them than students of Geography, a student of Human Society and its Environment will have the demands of both History and Geography, and possibly Commerce as well, to cope with. Similarly, demands on a student of Technology and Applied Science are likely to expand to include a social science dimension. Two implications of this for literacy are:

i) In terms of genre, control over a relatively small set of genres would enable students to succeed in all learning areas. However, they would need to see the role of different genres in relation to each other in a learning area. That is, their learning would be facilitated if they knew why a particular genre was used. It is argued that approaching genre in terms of function-in-a-subject best enables students to extend skills across discipline boundaries. In the future the role of argument and discussion genres is likely to be greater than at present.

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ii) The ability to handle shifts in language from concrete to abstract across a wider range than at present will be necessary. This point is related to the point above, in that it is implied by the more complex relationships among genres.

APPROACH TO SUBJECT LANGUAGE ANALYSIS

While subject boundaries will certainly become blurred, the seeds of the new Key Learning Areas already exist in traditional subjects. For this reason the approach taken in this report is:

i) to analyse the traditional subjects from which the Key Learning Areas are derived, with the specific aim of identifying the most important genres and how these relate to each other

ii) to examine how these subjects might combine, and to discuss the effects of this combination on school curriculum.

RATIONALE

One assumption behind this paper is that the language of different subjects is the way it is because different subjects have evolved to do different jobs, thus differences in language are systemic and functional. Based on differences in language, the primary distinction made in this report is between subjects which are **technical**, subjects which have a **science** or **social science** orientation and those which are **humanities** based. A considerable body of existing research indicates that the language of subjects in each of those broad areas exhibits significant similarities. For this reason subjects representative of these three areas will be assumed to cover the whole spread of language patterns to be found in the new Key Learning Areas. One aim of this report is to establish the smallest possible set of language skills and knowledge that will enable success across the curriculum.

Commonly used textbooks are chosen as the source of data. This is for two reasons:

i) Simply because they are commonly used they represent the written language that students have to deal with.

ii) It is assumed that textbooks exhibit the fundamental discourse patterns of a subject and so give a 'picture' of how a subject is put together.

The principal secondary school subjects considered in this report are **Technical Drawing, Metals Technology, Textiles and Design, Commerce, Geography and History**. These subjects represent a cross-section of the subjects being consolidated into Key Learning Areas and it is assumed that they will sufficiently represent all the language patterns which students and teachers will have to deal with.

This paper uses systemic functional linguistics, especially the concept of genre, as the theory behind the analysis. Technical terms are kept to a minimum. The most important genres in each of the subjects above are discussed in terms of both the features of those genres and how they relate to each other.

THE LANGUAGE OF THE SUBJECTS

This section addresses the following questions:

- What is this subject about?
- How is it constructed linguistically?
- What language resources do students need to be able to understand how this subject works?
- What language resources does a student need to have control over to do the subject successfully?

It looks at sets of key genres from each of the four categories of subjects: technical, science, social science and humanities, concentrating on the function of each genre in relation to the subject as a whole.

TECHNICAL SUBJECTS: DRAWING, METALS TECHNOLOGY AND TEXTILES AND DESIGN

General subject focus

Drawing, Metals Technology and Textiles and Design are very much activity oriented. They are organised around kinds of activities, instruments, materials and procedures used in those activities, and the results.

Their textbooks show a movement from text to activity, that is, the subjects are fundamentally about 'doing'. Success in them is ultimately judged on whether the student can do the required drawing or make particular objects. In general students do not do much writing about drawing, metals technology or textiles; they use the textbook to help them to draw and to make things. The textbook is a means to action. This is in contrast to many other subjects (for example History) where the emphasis is on using texts from a variety of sources to produce new and different texts.

Summary of generic organisation of the subject

Each of the genres below plays a different role in constructing the subject.

Argument. We find arguments serving to convince the student that some type of behaviour is necessary; ie to be safe in the workshop in Metals Technology and to be neat in Drawing. This genre plays a minor role in the overall organisation of the subject but is still important for anyone wanting to practise the discipline successfully. The orientation is towards action—getting someone to behave in a particular way. However, the level of nominalisation in some of the texts, particularly in Drawing, could prevent many students from getting the meaning unless they were talked through the written text.

Protocols. These play a different role. Their purpose is to set out the preconditions for doing something. The genre establishes what is necessary before the practitioner starts to 'do'. It is not like a procedure for performing some kind of operation, in that it does not matter what order the instructions are performed in as long as they are all performed.

Both of the genres above tend to occur early in a textbook, reflecting their function as being preparatory to action. Where protocols occur later in a textbook it is where a new type of activity is to be introduced.

Reports. Most of the taxonomic organisation of the subjects is constructed through reports. This genre is crucial to the student getting a 'picture' of how the field(s) is organised. Reports give the taxonomic organisation of parts of the field; the tables of contents of textbooks reflect the overall taxonomic organisation. The report genre identifies what the parts are and how they fit together.

Procedures. These texts give explicit instructions for how to do a particular job. They are more specific than protocols and specify the materials, tools and order of steps in doing a job. They rely on information already presented in preceding texts discussed above and represent the end of a chain of texts moving from information 'about' something to information about 'how to do' something.

We find a general pattern of i) justifying the field (argument), ii) initiating the field (report, protocol), iii) constructing the field (report), iv) doing the field (protocol/procedure).

COMMERCE

General subject focus

The orientation of Commerce is primarily towards text rather than action. Any actions the text might be directed towards are in the relatively distant future, whereas the actions in Drawing, Metals Technology and Textiles and Design are in the more immediate future. This different orientation brings another Register variable more into consideration. While Drawing, Metals Technology and Textiles and Design are primarily organised around information about 'how to do' things, Commerce is organised to some extent around information about 'how to do', but it places more emphasis on 'information about'. It is still a technical subject but it involves more manipulation of text and more complex relationships among genres than the technical subjects discussed above.

Summary of generic organisation of the subject

Discussion and argument. Discussions and arguments found in the Commerce textbooks serve the same function as those in the Drawing and Metals Technology textbooks, namely to justify either the study of the subject, or the practices of the subject. They do not deal with controversial issues within the subject.

Report. Reports also have a similar function to those found in Drawing and Metals Technology, that is, to construct the field through defining the technical vocabulary of the subject and arranging those terms taxonomically.

Accounts. These serve to explain the field. They look at first like arguments since they are organised around a framework of reasons or factors, but they do not deal with controversial issues. They concentrate on 'this is the way things are' rather than 'this is the way things should be'.

Protocol. Whereas reports construct the 'content' of the field, protocols introduce students to the generally accepted practices of the field.

Narrative and biography. These function to elaborate and exemplify the field. They provide vicarious experience of the field. They tend to be used to illustrate the part of the field that has previously been constructed. In a sense they take the place of 'doing' by illustrating a principle for students through a story. For example, a narrative of two young people setting up a lemonade stand allows students to experience key principles of establishing a business.

Macrogenres. In Commerce we find the first instances of macrogenres. These are texts which are combinations of more than one elementary genre. In the textbooks they usually result from embedding. One genre is used as (or embedded in) a stage in a larger text. These represent a shift from links between genres to combinations of genres within one text.

In general students are required to rely heavily on language in Commerce. They do not have direct experience to reinforce and construct the Field, so this experience is presented in the form of texts which serve as example of experience. The students are required to extract information presented in one linguistic package and see relationships between that information and information presented in other linguistic packages.

Commerce has much more text to deal with than Drawing and Metals Technology. It has shifts in genre and especially in Mode. In one sense its more concrete narrative-type texts are a substitute for 'doing' since they are, in a sense, closer to action than more general reports and arguments.

General pattern

The interrelationships among texts and the function of different generic elements within texts appear to be the principal source of difficulty for students. The texts in themselves are not any more difficult than those of Metals Technology and Drawing, but the way they fit together is more complex.

We find a general pattern of i) justifying the field (discussion, argument), ii) constructing the field (protocol/report), iii) elaborating/exemplifying the field (narrative, biography), iv) extending the field (report, account, argument).

GEOGRAPHY

General subject focus

Geography fits somewhere between Drawing/Metals Technology/Textiles and Design, and Commerce. Like them it is oriented towards the Field (ie setting up a 'scientific' framework which can be used to interpret the world) and involves movements from text to activity, from activity to text and from text to text. The differences are a matter of degree. There is less movement between text and activity than in Drawing/Metals Technology/Textiles and Design, and more than in Commerce, but a little less manipulation of different types of text than in Commerce but more than in Drawing/Metals Technology/Textiles and Design. The principal focus of the subject is the construction of the Field. The construction and use of the Field does, however, require the ability to cope with shifts in abstraction and genre shifts.

The primary focus of Geography textbooks is setting up a technical framework through which to interpret the world. This involves three phases: i) setting up a technical vocabulary, ii) organising taxonomically the things which have technical names, and iii) exploring how the things named and taxonomised interact with each other in implication sequences. i) and ii) require a static view of things and events; iii) requires a more dynamic view. These differences are reflected from the generic organisation of the subject through to the lexico-grammar.

Summary of the generic organisation of the subject

Reports. These function to create technical or specialised knowledge. They are used to define key terms and concepts and to establish taxonomic relations among those terms and concepts.

Explanations. These function to explain how processes in the natural world happen. They stick close to the events and are structured in the same sequence as the events occur. They can be used to generate implication sequences. They also look at a natural phenomena in terms of reasons, factors or stages.

Procedurally oriented reports. These are used to initiate students into the practices of the subject, that is, to teach students to do as geographers do.

Non-linguistic texts (eg maps). These are essential in Geography and are alternative ways of coding information. Some information is usually turned into linguistic text either orally or in writing, so students need to be able to switch fluently between non-linguistic and written texts.

General pattern

We find a general pattern of i) initiating/constructing the field (reports, explanations, {Maps}), ii) initiation into 'doing' the field (protocols, procedures), iii) constructing the field (reports, explanations, factorial explanations). We could add to this iv) interpreting the field (factorial explanations, arguments, discussions).

HISTORY

General subject focus

History represents a marked shift in focus from the other subjects discussed so far. They were all concerned with developing some kind of technical or scientific framework which could be used to either act on or interpret part of the world, with abstract language being more or less important depending on the subject. In History, on the other hand, shifts from relatively concrete to more abstract language are the principal means by which events are interpreted. History can be looked at, perhaps simplistically, as a shift from looking at a story, or a collection of stories, to an interpretation of those stories.

Rather than shifting from the everyday to the technical, History shifts from the concrete or everyday to the abstract. History, in a sense, consists of text, and the primary focus of History is the manipulation of text.

With the emphasis on using a variety of sources in History, the ability to manipulate text and handle shifts of the kind discussed is highlighted.

It is possible to look at the study of History as a kind of scale of what is referred to as Mode, with the actual events at one end of the scale, and an abstract interpretation of those events and other similar events at the other end as shown below:

Scale showing shifts from action to abstraction

<--->

event	recount of event by a participant	contemporary report of event	later report of event	interpretation of event in relation to other events
		(newspaper)	(textbook)	(thesis)

The shifts here are in time but also in abstraction. A recount of an event by a participant may happen years after the event, but in terms of Mode it is still closer to the event (since it involves 'reliving' the event) than say, a report in a magazine two weeks after the event (which involves interpreting the event).

Summary of generic organisation of the subject

Observation Comment. A simple observation of a phenomenon and a reaction to it.

Recount. These texts depict a sequence of events involving specific individuals, in the order in which they occurred.

Narrative. Description of a sequence of events involving specific individuals, in the order in which they occurred, but problematic in some way (has a complication).

Biography. A biography is like a selective Narrative of one person's life. Typically it is set in time (through circumstances of location, eg 'In 1770 Captain Cook ...').

Historical Recount. So these show generic classes of people involved in classes of events. Typically they are set in time (eg 'In 1786 ...') rather than sequenced in time (this happened then that happened). They represent a step in abstraction, away from the text being tied to specific events.

Report (Descriptive). Unlike reports in technical subjects these do not set up taxonomies. They focus on generic classes of activities engaged in at a particular time or over time, and on features of events or artefacts rather than on people.

Account. Accounts also focus on events rather than the people involved in them. They account for changes in, or the development of, some aspect of history over time. They are like a biography of a happening rather than of a person.

They focus on reasons why something happened or factors involved in its happening. They are similar to Arguments but they do not present information as problematic.

Argument. Argument is organised around trying to convince the reader of the validity of a particular viewpoint. It deals with things that are being presented as problematic in some way.

General pattern

We find the following general pattern: i) the source of history (recount, narrative, observation comment), ii) construction of history (historical recount, report, account), iii) interpretation of history (account, argument, discussion).

SUMMARY OF GENERIC STRUCTURES AND KEY LANGUAGE FEATURES

The following list moves from the genres most concerned with action to those most concerned with interpretation.

Genre	Structure	Key Language Features
Procedure	Goal^(Materials)^Method	Usually Imperative Mood, sequenced (all the actions must be done in order) simple present tense, second person oriented, often exophoric reference.
Protocol	Goal ^ General conditions	Usually Imperative Mood, not sequenced (all actions must be done, but in any order), simple present tense, second person oriented.
Observation Comment	Observation^Comment	Relational verbs used.
Recount	Orientation^Events	Past tense, sequenced in time, usually specific participants.
Narrative	Orientation^Complication^ Resolution (Coda)	As for Recount.
Biography	Orientation^ Events	Individual person focus, selected events in sequence.
Historical Recount	As for Recount	Selected events, set in time, generic participants, past tense.
Account	Phenomenon^ Explanation Sequence Explanation Factors	Set in time, changes settings, events focus.)

cont.

Explanation	Phenomenon^ Explanation Sequence Explanation Factors	Simple present tense, non-human participants, relational verbs, sequenced in time, generic reference.
Report	General classification^classification General statement ^description	Simple present tense, relational processes (definition and classification) generic reference, part/whole or class/subclass taxonomies. Descriptive reports identify features of phenomenon rather than classify; logical structure, not time-based.
Argument	Thesis^(Preview of arguments) ^Arguments^Conclusion	Logical structure not time based, nominalisation, abstract, content focus, participants used as examples.
Discussion	Thesis^(Preview of Arguments) Arguments for^Arguments against^	A discussion presents and evaluates arguments on both (all) sides of a recommendation issue and reaches some conclusion. It is similar to an argument in its logical organisation but is more evaluative.

SUMMARY OF SUBJECT PATTERNS

Drawing/Metals Technology/Textiles and Design

The sequence of genres below takes the student from written text, through a series of steps, to action.

Orientation: action <-- text

Genres: doing <------ procedure <------ protocol <------ report <------ argument

Functions: doing <--------- learning how <---------- learning what <--------- learning why

General pattern

Function in the discourse	Genre
Justifying the field	argument
Initiating and constructing the field	report
Doing the field	protocol, procedure

Commerce and Geography

Commerce and Geography are put together here because their basic general patterns are similar. They exhibit movements in three directions; from text to action, from action to text and from text to text.

Orientation: action <--- text

Genres: field work <---------------------------------- report, procedural texts, maps

Functions: doing <-------------------------- learning how to do
Orientation: action --> text

Genres: fieldwork -------------------------------> procedural recounts, reports, explanations

Functions: doing ---------------> learning how to use 'doing'

Orientation: text ---> text

Genres: reports, explanations ---------------> explanations, accounts, argument,

Genres: maps, arguments -----------------------> discussion

Functions: learning from text --------------------------> using text to act on the world

General pattern

Function in the discourse	**Genre**
Doing the field	protocol, procedure
Constructing the field	report, explanation
Interpreting the field	accounts
Using the field	argument, discussion

History

Orientation: text ---> text

Genres: recount, narrative, biography -----------------------> historical recount ------------------> account, report, argument, discussion account

Functions: individual experience ---------------------> collective experience ------> interpretation of experience

The functions of the genre in the discourse are summarised in the following table.

General pattern

Function in the discourse	**Genre**
Sources of history	vicarious recount, narrative, biography
Construction of history	historical recount, report, account
Interpretation of history	account, argument, discussion

SUMMARY OF CONCLUSIONS

It is argued here that while individual genres and the language features of those genres might prove problematic for students (and teachers), it is the complex sets of relationships among texts and sometimes within texts, both linguistic and non-linguistic, that are more likely to prove problematic. While control of genre is important, in fact crucial, in understanding the structure and function of individual texts, understanding that a Key Learning Area is more than a collection of texts, that there are intricate relationships among those texts, is more important in the ability to use rather than just to duplicate texts.

The range of genres identified in this project is quite narrow, but the range of relationships those genres enter into as they construct discourse is varied and complex. The ability to use a small set of genres is essential, but that alone would allow only a superficial grasp of a discourse since the relationships among them increase the complexity.

While the structure of texts should not be ignored, the function of particular texts within a discourse should be emphasised. This, however, presupposes that different texts can be recognised in the first place.

It can be seen that in relatively straightforward, field-oriented subjects such as Drawing/Metals Technology/Textiles and Design while the discourse is complex, it is not overly so, especially when it is compared with Commerce or Geography. In field-oriented subjects the movement from text to activity is more direct than movement from text to text, and then perhaps to activity. That is, the more abstracted a subject is from action or 'doing', the more linguistically complex it is. That is, the further abstracted from action the discourse is, generally the more manipulation of text will be involved in 'doing' the subject.

Examination of the genre and language requirements of the design folio (Design and Technology Classroom Unit) illustrates the above points. As the written task becomes more complex, the number of genres required to complete the task grows and the relationships among those genres become more complex. The students need to know how to move from 'doing' to writing about doing. To do this they need to know that the logical order in which something is done is not necessarily the same order that it may be written. They need first to be able to control shifts in abstraction, then they need to know what the appropriate genre for each part of the text is, its function and how to write it.

The main language implications of the shift into Key Learning Areas are as follows:

i) language demands across the curriculum are likely to become more integrated (ie, more similar);

ii) when different subjects are joined, the result is likely to be that the language demands become more like those described for Commerce and Geography above (that is, like social science);

iii) the implications of these likely changes are that junior secondary education will become linguistically more complex, especially with regard to relationships among genres.

Peter Wignell 1992

University of the Northern Territory

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ACCESSING LEARNING

module one

LANGUAGE AND LITERACY DEVELOPMENT IN KEY LEARNING AREAS

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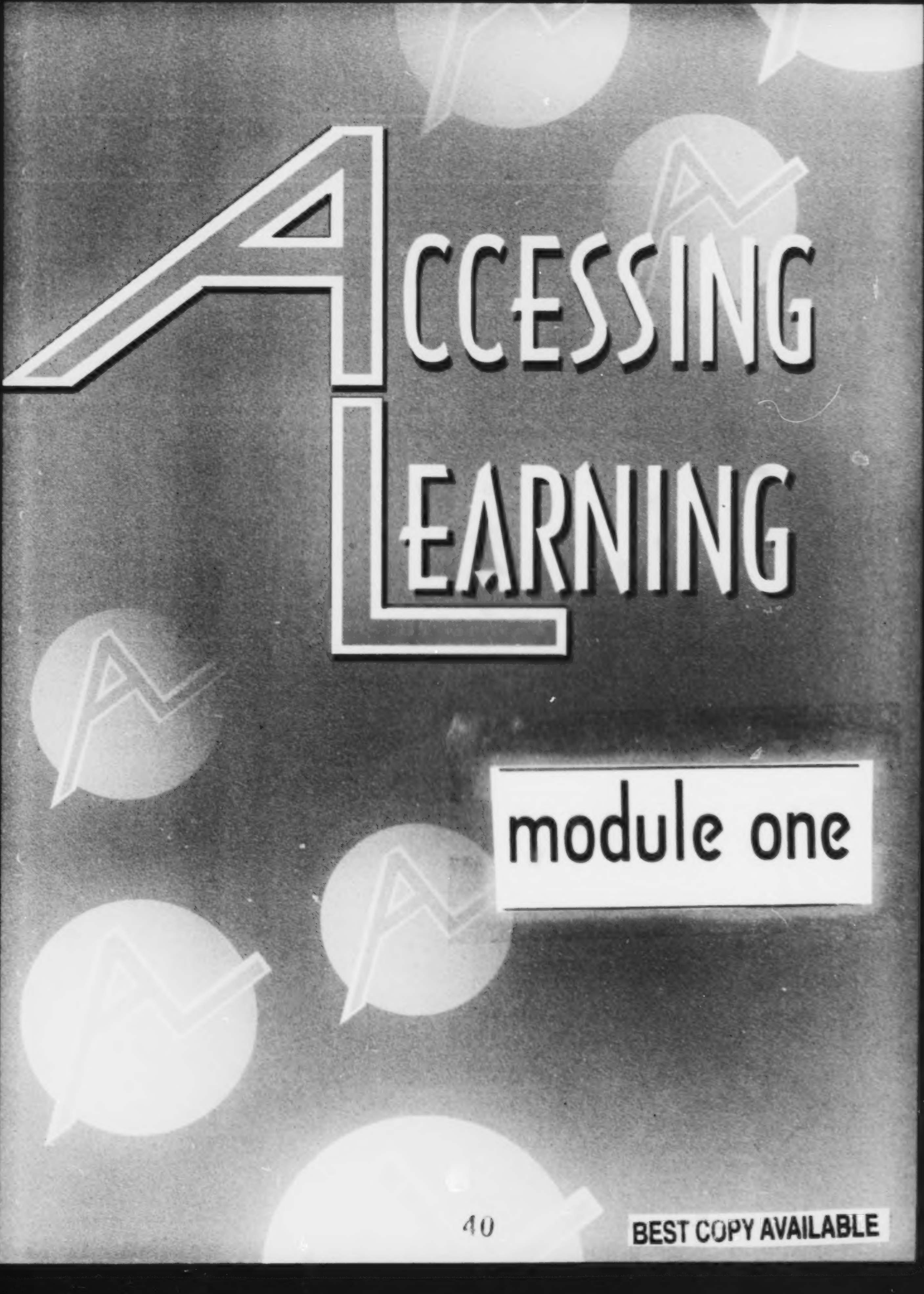

ACCESSING LEARNING

module one

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The *Accessing Learning* Professional Development Course is presented in three folders:

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   Video 2: Design and Technology - Describing

2. Blackline Masters
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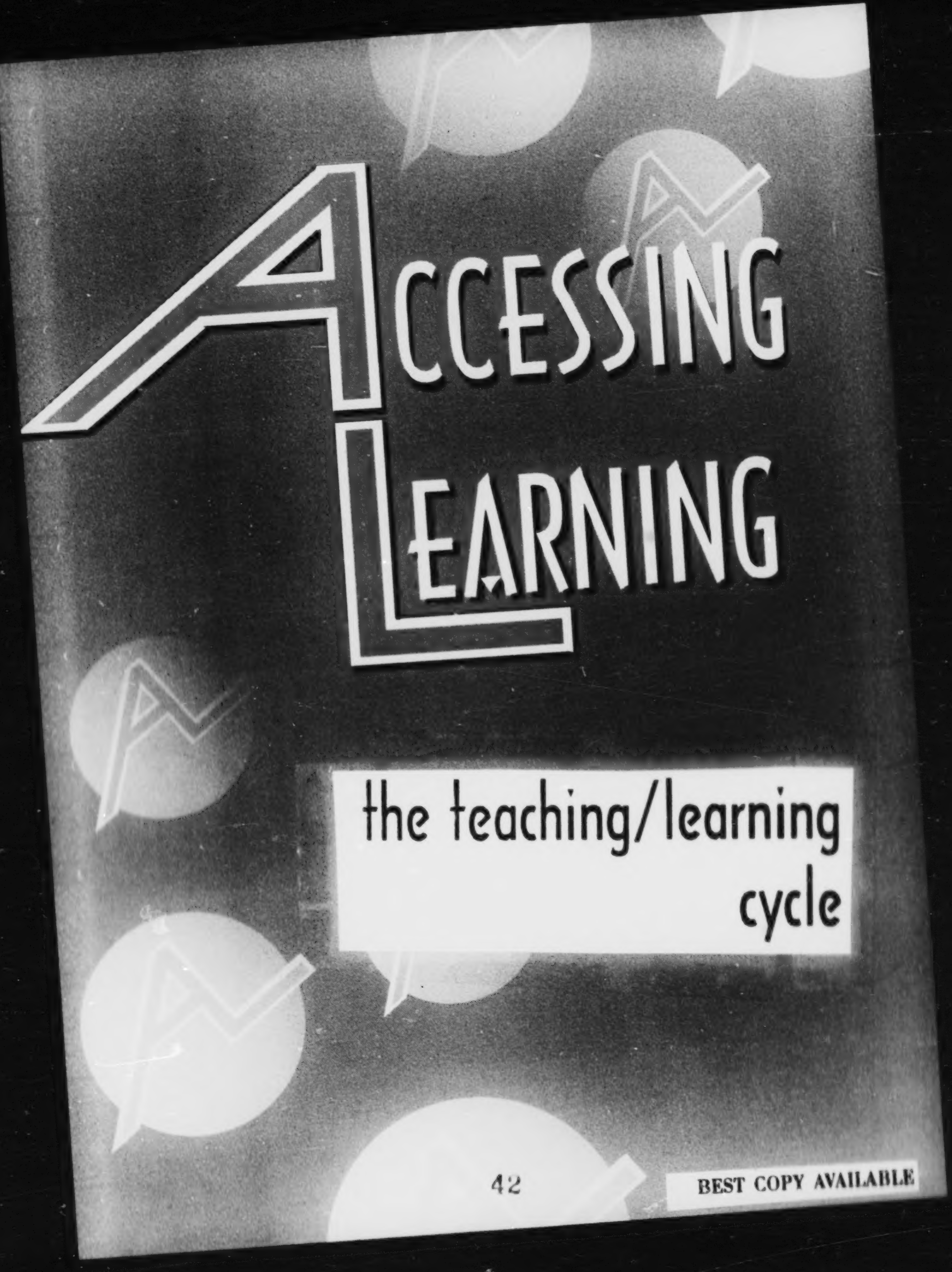
ISBN 1 86382 051 5 (The complete kit)
1 86382 052 3 (The Outline and all Modules)
1 86382 053 1 (The Blackline Masters)

Funded through the Literacy and Learning General Element, Commonwealth Department of Employment, Education and Training.

Printed and published by the Catholic Education Office, P.O. Box 217, Leichhardt NSW 2040.
Phone (02) 569 6111 Fax (02) 550 0052



ACCESSING LEARNING

the teaching/learning cycle

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the teaching/learning cycle

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SUCCESSFUL COMMUNICATION

Learner Task 1

Step 1. List some ideas as to how you might communicate who you are, without spoken or written language.

Step 2. Using only single words attempt to write a note about who you are.

Step 3. Now write using any language you like.

You could try this out with a friend or partner.

Workshop Task 1

Ask each participant to find an unfamiliar partner.

Step 1. Take two minutes to find out all you can about your partner — no speaking, no writing.

Step 2. Now continue for an additional minute using only single words.

Step 3. For a last minute use any language you like.

Commentary

In Step 1 participants' knowledge of each other is greatly limited because they do not speak or write.

In Step 2 participants can extend their knowledge, but it is still affected by the limited and restricted use of language.

In Step 3 participants can successfully complete the task because they have a wide repertoire of language resources.

This activity highlights the importance of language in communicating knowledge. It was intended to allow you to experience some of the frustrations of having a limited language repertoire. Using non-verbal communication or using one word utterances is not intended to replicate the resources our students have; clearly their language use is a great deal more complex. However, their resources are not always as developed and as complex as is needed for them to cope with the language demands of classroom learning.

The frustrations you felt being only able to communicate in one word utterances could mirror student frustration at having only the resources of spoken language to express their knowledge in the classroom, or having limited written language skills.

In the school context, students are often able to complete a task with only limited success (as in Step 2 of the previous activity). The lack of a wide repertoire of language resources limits the ability both to access and to express knowledge.

Some students do not progress beyond a limited use of language resources and are restricted in their ability to communicate in ways that are valued in the school setting.

Equally, in the warm-up activity you may have felt frustration in your role as listener. This too has its metaphoric equivalent in the frustration the teacher often feels in not being able to move the students from expressing themselves in a way that is far too spoken-like or non-technical for the classroom. These students, for a variety of reasons, seem unable to progress to full control over necessary language resources. For them, explicit teaching about language, using a common way to talk about it (metalanguage), is a way of bridging the gap. Without that explicit teaching, these students may continue to only nearly understand the textbook and to write the way they speak.

Learner Task 2

Watch Video 1, Part 1: Introduction.

Consider the role of language in your subject area.

(Note: Do not let Video 1, Part 2 play.)

Workshop Task 2

VCR

Learner Task 3

Read the teacher comments on student written work on the next page. Read the student responses to these comments. In the light of the comments and responses consider the following questions:

1. Are these teacher comments realistic?
2. Could the student responses be justified?
3. What issues are underlying the student reactions?
4. How do these issues relate to your own teaching experience?

Workshop Task 3

1 to 1-1

1 to 1-1

Teacher/*Student*

comment - Much clearer, Mohummad.
response - Much clearer than what? Is my handwriting improving?

comment - 5/10 Your argument is not well constructed, Bruce.
response - So what is good construction?

comment - C plus, Cathy, your writing is too informal.
response - But I don't know any other way to write!

comment - 4/10 Answer the question.
response - It doesn't matter what the questions says, I just write everything I know anyway.

comment - This isn't good essay style.
response - I write this way in English and it's OK, so what's wrong with it for History?

comment - 6/10 Try harder Josephine.
response - How? You've never shown us.

comment - You have missed the point in some places Luke.
response - Which places?

comment - B plus, good effort Ming Lee.
response - But why is it different to the one I did last time? I only got a C for that.

comment - Your ideas are a bit confusing. 6/10
response - Yeah, well so was the question!

comment - 7/10 Be more careful, Kim.
response - Careful of what?

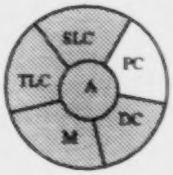
Commentary

As Cathy, the history teacher in the video, tells us, it is often difficult to pinpoint exactly how to assist students to improve their work. Time is limited and describing precisely how a piece of work differs from the teacher's expectations can be a source of constant frustration for both teacher and student. *Accessing Learning* seeks to assist teachers to understand the language demands they place on students — and to provide the tools to make these demands explicit to students. With a systematic way of integrating content with explicit information about language, teachers and students will be able to assess written work according to shared criteria. By preparing and equipping students prior to a task, the teacher is less likely to need to write extended responses on individual pieces of work.

THE TEACHING/LEARNING CYCLE

We are now going to revisit the teaching/learning cycle you were introduced to in Video 1, Part 1. The pedagogy of the cycle is underpinned by a knowledge of language and an understanding of learning which are embodied in a variety of activities.

PREPARING THE CONTEXT



2 to 3-3

In preparing the context of a unit of work teachers need to ask themselves the following questions:

- ☐ what is this topic about?
- ☐ what do students already know about this topic?
- ☐ what concepts and language should be focused on to allow students to comprehend the topic?

2

The second and third questions are important because students bring both their formal school knowledge (if any) and their everyday knowledge to the topic.

Learner Task 4

Workshop Task 4

3

> Read the following sentence:
>
> 'Mary heard the ice-cream van coming down the street. She remembered her birthday and rushed into the house'.
>
> What images come to mind?
>
> What do you expect to happen next?
>
> Activity adapted from *Schema Theory and ESL Reading Pedagogy*, P. Carrell and J. Eisterhold, *TESOL Quarterly* 17

Commentary

In the process of trying to understand the sentence we try to relate it to something familiar, a schema which will account for the event described.

On reading the first line we begin to make assumptions about the story. Most readers in our culture will presume that:

- Mary is a young girl;
- there is a particular musical sound associated with the ice-cream truck;
- she wanted to buy an ice-cream from the van;
- buying an ice-cream costs money;
- she remembered that a source of money was her birthday money;
- the money was readily available in the house;
- she went into the house to get the money before the ice-cream man arrived.

Even though the text does not say all of this, we bring all our cultural background knowledge to our reading.

If you now read the next part of the sentence, '… and locked the door', you are unable to match this new piece of information with the image that has been created in your head. You are forced to revise the initial interpretation. For example, you will now start considering whether perhaps Mary is afraid that the ice-cream man might steal her birthday money so she locks the door to protect it and herself.

As readers we attach new information to pre-existing ideas. These pre-existing ideas are known as schemata (schema is the singular form).

Learner Task 5

Consider the sentence below and think about what links you are making to what you already know or have experienced.

'The policeman held up his hand and stopped the car.'

Activity adapted from *Schema Theory and ESL Reading Pedagogy*, P. Carrell and J. Eisterhold, *TESOL Quarterly* 17

Workshop Task 5

Keep the answer covered until the group has discussed the two schemata.

On reading this sentence the reader's most likely schema is one of a traffic policeman signalling a driver to stop, with the following assumptions:

- the car has a driver;
- the policeman holding up his hand is signalling;
- the policeman's signal causes the driver to stop the car;
- brakes are applied to stop the car.

If we knew the policeman was Superman and we knew the car was without a driver, the interpretation of the text would be different. A different schema would be required to understand it.

The following assumptions would probably be made:

- the car is unable to stop of its own accord;
- Superman holding up his hand is not a signal but a direct physical means of stopping the car.

This would of course assume that we had a schema about Superman.

Depending on your schema, the answers to the following reading comprehension questions could be totally different.

Question	**Answer**	
	Traffic Policeman Schema	Superman Schema
Did the policeman's hand touch the car?	No	Yes
Were the car's brakes applied?	Yes	No

4

To sum up, a schema is an organised body of knowledge about the world—information an individual holds in her/his head about any number of things. The more we experience, the more our schemata increase.

Take a few minutes and consider the classroom implications of schema theory in preparing the context.

We can see through examples that, when we introduce a topic, concept or issue in the classroom, students will immediately begin to attach it to their pre-existing ideas. These ideas will be formed using knowledge from outside the classroom and formal knowledge from other subject areas.

For example, the word *power* may activate schemata students have from outside the classroom. It might evoke images to do with anything from electricity to Superman to parents. In the formal knowledge world of the classroom, it can have many other meanings:

'rate of using energy' (Physics)
'3^6' (Maths)
'authority' (History).

Similarly, the word *scale*:

'fish covering' (Biology)
'measurement' (Maths)
'notes' (Music)
'plant disease' (Botany).

In preparing the context by asking students to think about what they already know about a topic, the teacher can not only assess where the gaps are in the students' knowledge about the topic, and set about providing the necessary information, but also encourage students to make links between the new information and their existing knowledge. This includes the students' formal school knowledge about the topic plus any everyday knowledge they may bring to the situation.

This is usually done by questioning and discussion or a brainstorming activity. That is, in the stage of preparing the context the teacher is concerned with tapping into students' schemata and extending them.

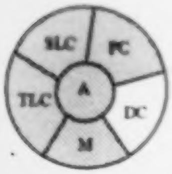
Take as an example of the teaching/learning cycle in the classroom, a Year 10 Commerce topic, 'the role of trade unions', where the students will write a report on trade unions at the end of the unit of work. See page 14.

In preparing the context the teacher could ask the following questions to activate a schema and check background knowledge:

- ❑ what are trade unions?
- ❑ what do you know about trade unions?
- ❑ can you outline what a trade union does?
- ❑ can you name any trade unions?
- ❑ if you had to write a report on trade unions giving information about their structure and functions, what language would such a report include?

The student responses will indicate both what they already know and what needs to be taught in order for them to deal effectively with the developing the context and modelling stages of the cycle. The teacher may need to introduce key vocabulary terms and key concepts so that students can make sense of the work of these next stages.

DEVELOPING THE CONTEXT



In developing the context the teacher builds up knowledge of the topic (the field) through other related reading materials. This moves the students from an everyday understanding to a specialised understanding of the topic.

This part of the cycle will vary according to the amount of information students need. For example, students could research information from the library or watch a video as part of information gathering.

During this phase, students will need to engage with a lot of written language. Because of the level of technicality and abstraction with which information is presented when it is written down, students will need to be supported as they try to unpack the content.

They will need to explore the ideas orally and build up their understanding through talking about the information and issues presented.

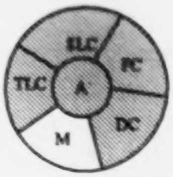
Once students have actively engaged with the content through talking about it, they will need support in packing it back up again in written language. This process begins in the modelling phase and is developed and reinforced in the teacher-led construction.

On-going consideration should be given to these questions:

- ❑ what information do students need to understand the topic and complete the final task?
- ❑ what type of activities will develop the context for the students?

In the Commerce example on page 14 the teacher uses background readings on trade unions, shows a video on the history of trade unions and monitors student understanding of them.

MODELLING



In this segment of the cycle the teacher provides a model/models of text that approximate what will be required of students.

Learner Task 6

1. Think about situations where you have known what you wanted to write about, but have not known how to start.
2. How did you approach/solve your problem?
3. What are the parallels with the classroom?

Workshop Task 6

Commentary

Perhaps you remember when you had to write your first curriculum vitae, prepare inspection papers and fill out reports in a new school, prepare a budget, or perhaps even write a submission for funding.

Not knowing the appropriate written format to express your ideas probably led you to find an example supplied, perhaps, by a colleague or friend.

What is the parallel with your classroom? When students borrow past assignments, they are often accused of cheating. What they are really doing, however, is seeking a model, just as you did. Like you, they too could use this model as a starting point from which to identify the 'how'. The problem with the way students often use the work of previous students is that they fail to use the model to identify the structure and adapt it to their own situation. Instead they are often tempted to copy significant sections of the model. By using models in the classroom, students can be guided by the teacher to deconstruct and adapt them. In this way, previous student work can provide a valuable source of model texts.

To tinker creatively

Rather than stifling creativity and copying someone else's work, students need to find out what the valued, accepted and successful norm for a particular kind of writing looks like, that is, how meaning is constructed and communicated appropriately in the particular section of society for which they are writing. Once we are familiar with the norm, we can start to tinker creatively with it to enhance our particular purpose.

For example, when an author chooses to begin a novel at the end, s/he does so knowing that both s/he and the reader knows (or will shortly know) that this is the conventional ending of the story and that it is being moved in order to create an effect. It is precisely because we, as readers, know what a conventional narrative looks like, that we have little trouble understanding this kind of deviation or creativity. There are not many new kinds of texts in the world; we write and read through a set of socially constructed practices.

The teaching/learning cycle presented in *Accessing Learning* is designed to methodically scaffold the students through the process of being apprenticed into an understanding of the kinds of texts valued by each subject area. It will scaffold them, through using a model, to become familiar with the language features which will allow them to express their knowledge appropriately.

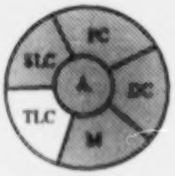
Models should clearly demonstrate the form of writing the teacher will expect from the students, both in terms of organisation of information and language features. Good models can often be found in text books and reference materials; they can be written by the teacher or borrowed from the work of previous students.

Ongoing consideration should be given to selecting activities to highlight:

- the overall structure of the model text;
- the important and/or characteristic language features of the model text.

In the Commerce example, the teacher would provide a model of a report on the role of the trade union representative and would examine the model in detail with the students, checking for their understanding of the concept of stages, their ability to break the text into stages and their ability to recognise the characteristic language of a report. (These will be dealt with in later modules.)

TEACHER-LED CONSTRUCTION



In this segment of the cycle the teacher and the students jointly construct a piece of writing similar to the model in the previous segment. The support of the teacher at this stage is critical in reinforcing linguistic features of the text by referring to the language activities and the model seen in the previous segment.

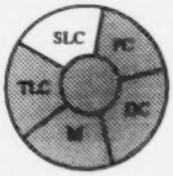
8

As this course progresses we will see how the teacher often chooses to do this in two stages. In what we call Version I, the teacher concentrates on ensuring that the text is constructed in an appropriate order. This version is often written on every second line of an OHT, allowing the teacher and students to go over it a second time. In Version 2, the teacher will concentrate on having students rewrite the text using the characteristic language features highlighted in the model.

Ongoing consideration should be given to how to ensure the students transfer into practice the knowledge gained from the modelling work.

In the Commerce example, the teacher and students jointly construct a report on the role of the trade union member, as the teacher continues to monitor student understanding.

STUDENT-LED CONSTRUCTION



During this segment the students independently construct texts of their own similar to the model. It is important that the teacher asks the students to write texts in the same genre and does not require them to write in a different way.

9

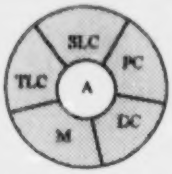
What often happens in classrooms is that teachers and students spend a considerable amount of time building up the field knowledge of the topic by engaging in a range of activities and looking at a variety of different texts. This culminates in an assignment or task which is a written text of some kind. The problem is that the final written task is sometimes not the type of text focused on in the preceding lessons.

If a report has been modelled and practised, then a report would be the required text in the student-led construction. Even though the topic may not be approached from the same point of view as the model, students will have been prepared for the kind of writing expected of them.

While students are working on their texts they could be conferencing with other students or the teacher for guidance on both the content and language to be used in their writing.

In the Commerce example students independently construct a report on the role of the trade union movement in Australia and are formally assessed on the basis of the language features which have been articulated in the preceding lessons.

ASSESSMENT



Assessment lies in the centre of the model, the teacher monitoring the ongoing progress of students at all stages. The teacher determines student understanding of both the content and language demands of the unit of work and focuses on areas of need or passes quickly through areas with which students are already familiar. 10

In the Commerce example, the teacher informally assesses student understanding until the student-led construction, where formal assessment occurs, using the requirements established throughout the cycle as criteria.

Accessing Learning's primary aim is to present clearly the language conventions students need to master. Once you and your students have absorbed them, you can use them as reference points in your formal assessment of student work. The Teaching/Learning Cycle and Classroom Units show assessment as an integral part of teaching, but specific assessment activities are not provided.

EXTENDING AND EMBEDDING

At times, the teacher may need to suspend movement around a cycle in order to teach a particular feature.

For example, s/he may wish to teach about definitions, or how to design a product test. S/he would move through all the stages of another cycle, for this specific purpose. When that task is completed, teacher and students re-enter the original cycle and continue. An embedded cycle, Figure 1, is usually part of developing the context.

As well as allowing for separate skills development, an extended teaching/learning cycle also allows multiple opportunities to build up field knowledge.

11

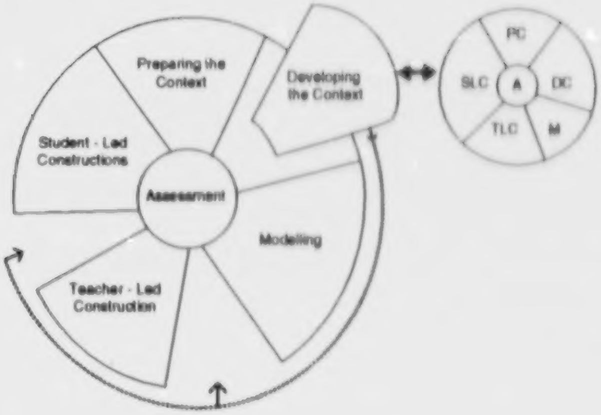

Preparing the Context
Developing the Context
Student - Led Constructions
Assessment
Modelling
Teacher - Led Construction
PC
SLC
A
DC
TLC
M

Figure 1: Extended and Embedded Cycle

It may not be appropriate for students to obtain all the new information in a topic at the same time, they may need to revisit the developing the context section of the cycle as they require more information. For example, a History student working on famous 19th century Australian women could research Caroline Chisholm in developing the context and the teacher could use this student knowledge in a model on Caroline Chisholm. The students would then revisit the developing the context section and build up field knowledge on another famous Australian woman such as Mary Reibey. This information would then be used for a teacher-led construction. Next the student would return once more to developing the context and research another famous Australian woman and this information would be used in a student-led construction.

EXAMPLES OF THE TEACHING/LEARNING CYCLE

1. COMMERCE — THE ROLE OF TRADE UNIONS

Preparing the Context

4 to 4-1

- ☐ What are trade unions?
- ☐ What do you know about trade unions?
- ☐ Can you outline what a trade union does?
- ☐ Can you name any trade unions?
- ☐ If you had to write a report on trade unions giving information about their structure and functions, what kind of language would such a report include?

Assessment

- Check understanding of knowledge of trade unions and key vocabulary.

Developing the Context

- ☐ Background reading on trade unions.
- ☐ Video on history of trade unions.

Assessment

- Check understanding of background reading and video.

Modelling

- ☐ Provide a model for a report on the role of the trade union representative.
- ☐ Examine the model in detail with the students.

Assessment

- Check understanding of the concept of stages and the ability to break text into stages.
- Check ability to recognise the characteristic language of a report and understanding of subject content.

Teacher-led Construction

- ❑ Teachers and students jointly construct a report on the role of trade union members.

Assessment

- Check ability to use appropriate staging and language features in report writing, and knowledge of content.

Student-led Construction

- ❑ Students independently construct reports on the role of the trade union movement in Australia.

Assessment

- Formal assessment of reports in terms of content, staging and language features.

2. HISTORY — SURVEY WRITING

In a moment you will view Video 1, Part 2: History. In it Cathy teaches a unit of work, 'What it Means to be an Australian', to a Year 8 History class. This topic is mandatory in the NSW History 7–10 Syllabus.

Cathy realised that in dealing with this topic she would have to explore monocultural stereotypes that a traditional response to that question might give. In order to draw on the diversity of the community in which her students live, she decided to begin the unit by asking the students to find out how the wider community sees this issue today. From this contemporary view, Cathy was able to work towards a view of the issue based not on the traditional stereotypes from which the students might have begun, but on the culturally divergent views which were reflected in the responses they collected. In this way she was able to provide an opportunity to deal with the issues of stereotyping in a supportive and contextualised environment.

In the video Cathy is at the beginning of developing the context and wishes to start with a survey. Her past experience tells her that student surveys are often unsuccessful because they fail to provide students with the information they need. As we watch Cathy teaching this segment we will see how incorporating a language focus into her teaching ensures that her students produce a successful survey.

Learner Task 7

Workshop Task 7

12

Watch Video 1, Part 2: History.

Consider the following questions:

1. What activities does Cathy use to build up an understanding of the subject matter?
2. What activities does Cathy use to build up an understanding of the language features of a survey?
3. What does Cathy do to ensure the surveys are successful?

Commentary

1. To build up an understanding of the subject matter Cathy uses the following activities:
   - ☐ brainstorm,
   - ☐ scanning, reading material for vocabulary development,
   - ☐ discussion of previous examples of contact with surveys outside the school situation to activate and check student schemata.

2. To build up an understanding of the language features of a survey Cathy uses the following activities:
   - ☐ surveys to focus on the structure of a survey,
   - ☐ sequencing activity for stages of survey,
   - ☐ Another survey on OHT — as a model to focus on stages and characteristic language features,
   - ☐ Jointly constructing a survey.

3. By scaffolding the students at each stage of the teaching/learning cycle with activities that are content-based and with a language focus, Cathy has ensured the students will produce a survey that achieves its purpose.

3. TRIAL PLAN

Learner Task 8

Workshop Task 8

13

> Using the teaching/learning cycle and the Commerce example we looked at earlier, outline a cycle for Year 7 Design and Technology students on writing a description of gears. Refer students to their textbook on the history of machines, levers and pulleys for information. The description will later form part of a report on machines.

Commentary

A suggested approach is shown below.

5

14

Year 7 Design and Technology Cycle
Topic: Machines

PREPARING THE CONTEXT

- ☐ Introduce the topic of machines.
- ☐ Brainstorm types of machines.

DEVELOPING THE CONTEXT

- ☐ Read the relevant section of the textbook chapter on the history of machines.
- ☐ Develop the technical vocabulary.
- ☐ Check that students can read graphic information and make connections to the text.

MODEL

- ☐ Provide students with a description of levers based on the section describing levers in their textbook.
- ☐ Identify the features of (deconstruct) this description.

TEACHER-LED CONSTRUCTION

- ☐ Using overheads, teacher and students write a description of pulleys together.

STUDENT-LED CONSTRUCTION

- ☐ Students write their own descriptions of gears.

CONCLUSION TO THE TEACHING/LEARNING CYCLE

In this unit we have examined a teaching/learning cycle with a systematic approach to incorporating a language focus into the teaching of content. By using this cycle to plan a unit of work, teachers can ensure that students not only gain access to the content of the unit, but are also systematically prepared to produce a piece of writing appropriate to the information and to the task required of them.

Module Two introduces the description of language which underpins this course. In Modules Three to Seven this language description is more fully explored. These language descriptions equip you to tackle the modelling and teacher-led construction sections of the cycle successfully.

You will also find in Modules Three to Seven sections called Teaching/Learning Activities. These activities support student reading and/or writing and are designed to be used in developing the context and modelling sections of the teaching/learning cycle.

It is suggested that you next complete Module Two.

ACCESSING LEARNING

module two

LANGUAGE AND LITERACY DEVELOPMENT IN KEY LEARNING AREAS

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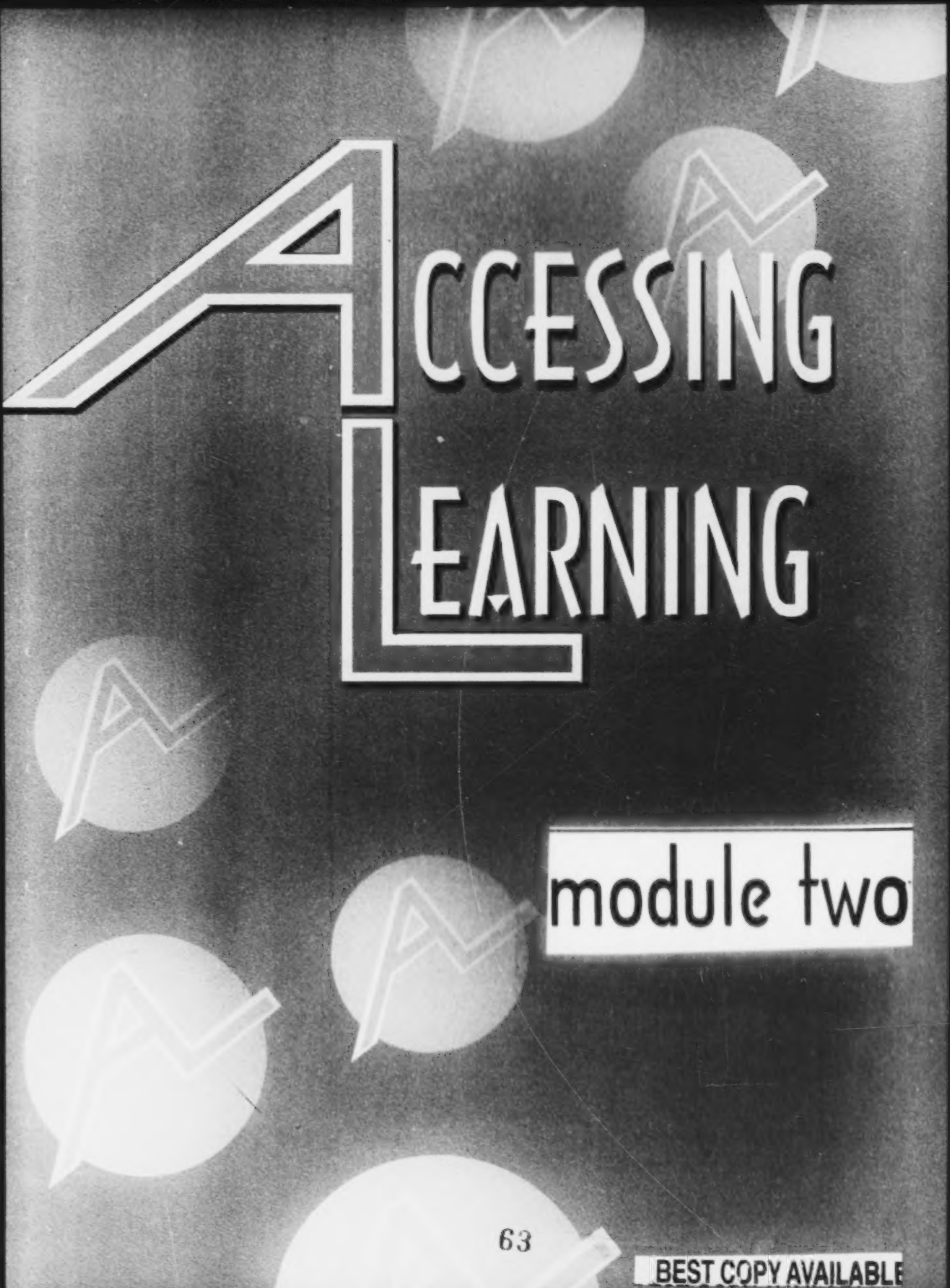

ACCESSING LEARNING

module two

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1. Outline and Modules One to Eight
   Video 1, Part 1: Introduction to *Accessing Learning*
   Part 2: History - Survey Writing
   Video 2: Design and Technology - Describing

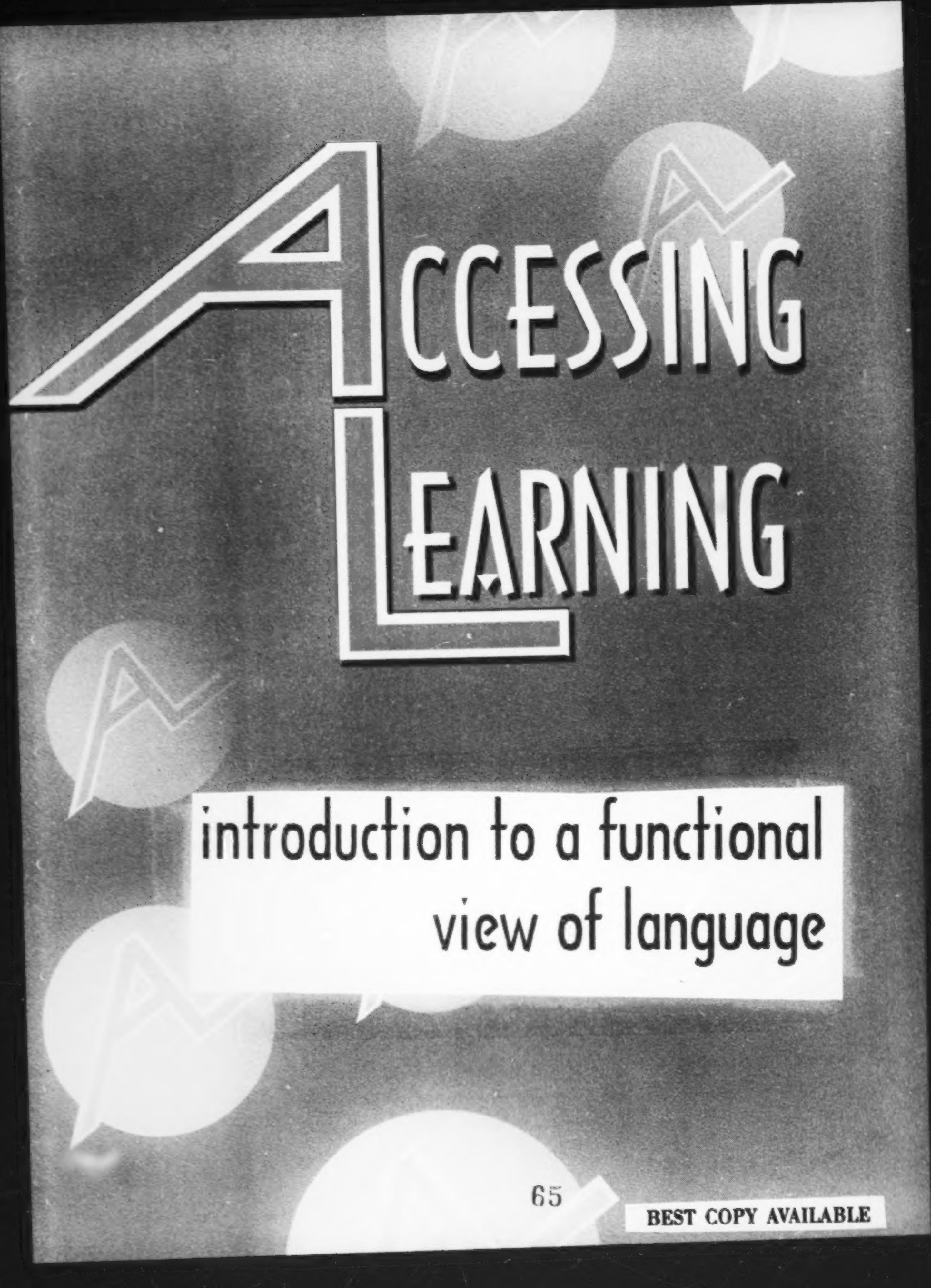
2. Blackline Masters
   Video 3: Geography - Challenging

3. Classroom Units
   - Commerce
   - History
   - Geography
   - Design and Technology

ISBN
1 86382 051 5 (The complete kit)
1 86382 052 3 (The Outline and all Modules)
1 86382 053 1 (The Blackline Masters)

Funded through the Literacy and Learning General Element, Commonwealth Department of Employment, Education and Training.

Printed and published by the Catholic Education Office, P.O. Box 217, Leichhardt NSW 2040.
Phone (02) 569 6111 Fax (02) 550 0052



ACCESSING LEARNING

introduction to a functional view of language

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introduction to a functional view of language

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WHAT DO WE NEED TO KNOW ABOUT LANGUAGE?

Learner Task 1

Workshop Task 1

1

Do you remember your English lessons in primary and secondary school? Think for a minute about what aspects of language you learnt in English. Write down what language features were dealt with.

If you were at school some years ago there were probably a lot of grammar lessons where you applied rules of grammar to sentences and learnt spelling lists. The other side to English was writing comprehension answers or stories such as 'What I did last weekend'. In secondary school, the focus was on the content and interpretation of English literature, with very little explicit language work. In other words, sentence grammar and text grammar were not really dealt with; the issue was what the writer really meant in different passages of a novel, or a poem, or a newspaper report.

Language and literature came together in comprehension exercises: questions about the meaning and style of passages from newspapers and magazines as well as from poems, plays and novels. Compositions were largely replaced by essays, and the essays were usually on a literary text.

We know that this is a very simplistic description of English lessons, but we want to emphasise two things here. Firstly, language was the domain of English lessons; other subjects were content-oriented. If students couldn't write properly or had problems comprehending these subjects, then they had problems with English and it was up to the English teacher to solve them. Cries of 'What do they teach you in English?' were common.

Language in different subject areas

Learner Task 2

Workshop Task 2

2

1

Examine the following sentences. In which subject would you expect to find them? What do they have in common? In what ways are they different?

☐ The sun's rays contain UV light which is damaging to the skin.

☐ The sun is a glowing ball of hot gases. The most common elements in the sun are hydrogen, helium, calcium, sodium, magnesium and iron.

☐ The piercing sun relentlessly scorched his unprotected body.

☐ The Incas of Peru, like many other ancient peoples, worshipped the sun as a god and made sacrifices to it.

☐ The sun has affected the arts since ancient times. Several designs used in ancient art, such as the hooked cross, came from attempts to make pictures or carvings of the sun.

☐ Winds are made as the sun heats the air. Weather is made as warm air rises, cools, and drops its moisture onto the earth.

Commentary

Each of the above extracts fits in a different subject area.

Learner Task 2 highlights the fact that we use language to achieve different purposes. As teachers we need a language to explain to a History student who describes the sun using a scientific definition that this, although technically accurate, is not appropriate for a History report on ancient civilisations and their relationship to the sun.

Different subjects use different language to view the world from their own perspective. However, in many Design & Technology, Geography, Science or History classrooms, language was not usually seen as part of teaching. This means that there was no explicit focus on the language of different subjects — how knowledge is constructed differently by language in Geography or Science or History. The kinds of text students read or wrote in these different subjects were not analysed or described in ways that were accessible to teachers or students.

Furthermore, the view of language was that it was made up of small, discrete bits which you could build up or add together.

We would argue that all teachers need to have some understanding of how language functions in their own subject: what language is doing in Commerce and Technology, for example, what kinds of texts students have to read and/or write in these subjects. Teachers should develop explicit knowledge about language — how it works and what it does.

It is, of course, not enough for teachers to have this knowledge. It is essential that students are made aware of the written demands of their subjects in a very explicit way. Through this, they can become successful readers and writers. Learning always includes learning language. Unlike school experiences of many years ago, learning language is not separate from learning say, Commerce. Rather, Commerce is learnt through language. Even when the school curricula emphasise learning through doing, the doing involves language. The ways Geography text books are written, the ways Geography teachers present lessons, the ways exam questions are written and answered, all construct the field of Geography in particular ways. This is so in each subject. Students are usually successful in particular subjects because they have learnt (intuitively) not only the content, but how to understand and reproduce the content.

In other words, to learn content is to learn language: it is to learn how to recognise and implement the writing demands of different subjects. Learning a subject involves defining and addressing questions in ways particular to that subject. In fact, success or failure at school is closely tied to the student's ability to write in ways which are appropriate to different subjects.

To conclude then, what is needed is:

- an understanding of how language is constructed to make meanings in different subjects;

- a language to talk about language.

In this introductory module we explore both these issues.

A FUNCTIONAL VIEW OF LANGUAGE

In this section we introduce the functional theory of language which underpins this professional development course.

Traditionally — think again about your own view of language and your school experiences — language has been seen and described as a break-up of small bits — words — phrases — sentences. How these bits are put together is governed by a system of rules. If we know the rules and use them correctly we will be successful language users.

Learner Task 3

Workshop Task 3

3

Sometimes when we communicate, even if we don't make any grammatical mistakes, what we say is still misunderstood or considered inappropriate.

Think of situations where you have known and used the rules of language (the grammar) correctly, but you haven't been a successful language user.

What do you think might account for this miscommunication?

Commentary

Experiences of miscommunication from Learner Task 3 might include:

- during an argument the protagonists may have been arguing at cross purposes;
- in a formal situation you may have spoken in an overly familiar way;
- you may have written the way you would have spoken.

Communication, spoken or written, often breaks down somewhere. Clearly, language is more than a formal set of rules and words applicable to all contexts.

LANGUAGE AND CONTEXT

A functional theory of language is a meaning-based view of language. It argues that language is purposeful, social behaviour. This means that language and purpose are inextricably linked, as are language and society or culture. We use language to do things, and the ways we use language to do things will differ from one context to another, for example, we recount how we got a flat tyre on the weekend differently from giving people instructions on how to change a flat tyre — the purpose for which we use language drastically affects the way it is used.

What we do with language in different contexts is to make different kinds of meanings. We learnt to do this through imitation or trial and error. A functional theory of language is concerned with how we use language — not just how language is structured, but how language is structured for use in different contexts.

In *Accessing Learning* we call the major general functions of language 'macro-functions'. In these materials we look at the following macro-functions which are central to Human Society and its Environment and Technology and Applied Studies:

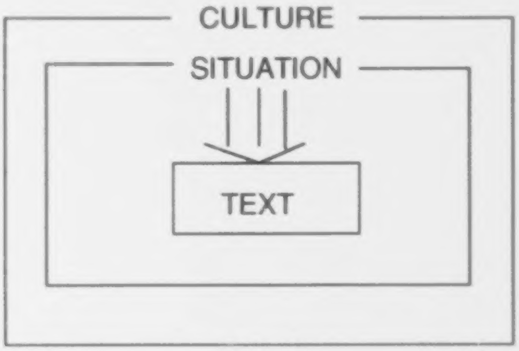
Describing
Recounting
Instructing
Explaining
Challenging

A traditional view of language focuses on correct grammatical usage and on words, phrases and sentences. This formal view of language does not account for how language varies from context to context and so cannot describe the language demands of the different subjects in these KLAs.

A functional model of language provides us with a way of showing the systematic correlation between language and context. In the following section we will explore how a functional model explains this relationship.

The focus of study is text. A text is a meaningful stretch of language that hangs together and functions in a context of use. We are concerned first with looking at language in the contexts of culture and situation.

The following diagram shows the general relationship of text (or language) to situation and culture. Broad general patterns of language derive from our culture, and are known as **genres**. Genre is another name for text-type.



4

Specific situations cause us to vary our language (text). We have to take into account the topic, who is involved in the situation, and the role that our communication is playing. The language that matches the requirements of a situation is called the appropriate **register**.

We select that language from the system of combining words in English. The system is called the **lexico-grammar**. When we speak or write our text draws on our knowledge of genres and register, and the lexico-grammar of English.

GENRE

The concept of genre (or text-type) provides us with a means of categorising text. It groups texts that achieve similar purposes.

The purpose of a text can be identified by asking such questions as:

5

- what is the purpose of the writing? Why is it being written?
- by whom is it intended to be read?

Learner Task 4

Workshop Task 4

Consider the following matrix. Use the above questions to determine whether the purpose, audience and text-type match.

6

Coordinator to direct participants in this task

Purpose	Audience	Text-type	Appropriate or inappropriate
To complain	government department	argument (eg letter of complaint)	
To entertain	child	narrative	
To give personal opinions	police officer	personal eye-witness account	

Matching purpose and text-type

Commentary

In the first two examples the text chosen would appropriately fulfil the writer's purpose, taking the intended audience into consideration.

However, in the third example we see a mismatch: while an eye witness may well wish to express his/her anger, a police officer requires an impersonal statement of fact. If the eye witness starts to relate a personal opinion to the police officer, it will be considered inappropriate, and the witness will probably be asked to state what was observed only.

Learner Task 5

This activity highlights the need to match purpose and audience with an appropriate text-type.

Study all three groups listed on the next page. Select an item from any of the columns and match items from the other two. Make sure you select from different columns. Don't be satisfied with just one match, look for others. Good luck.

Workshop Task 5

2 to 2-1

This game highlights the need to match purpose and audience with appropriate text.

There are three groups of cards:

Group 1	-	purpose cards	(green)
Group 2	-	audience cards	(blue)
Group 3	-	text-type cards	(white)

(There are not equal numbers of cards in each group.)

Shuffle each group and then turn up one card from each. This will give you:

1 purpose card 1 audience card 1 text-type card

Consider whether the text-type revealed is appropriate to the intended purpose and audience. Repeat the process and consider again the appropriateness of each text-type with the intended purpose and audience.

Please note, there is no way to arrange all the cards so that they make a complete set.

Adapted from *Language in the National Curriculum*, UK, 1992

2-1

Group 1 (green) **Purpose**	Group 2 (blue) **Audience**	Group 3 (white) **Text-type**
entertain	teacher	narrative
persuade	friend	description
explain	parent	directions
compare/ contrast	unknown person	explanation
inform	government official	argument essay
describe	doctor	anecdote
instruct	child	discussion essay
		report

APPROPRIATENESS IN LANGUAGE

How did we know when a combination of cards was appropriate or inappropriate?

We have an understanding (often implicit) of the way language varies according to the purpose we wish to put it to, and the audience to whom it is addressed. We can see by our reaction to the more inappropriate combinations that different situations dictate different conventions. For example, we would hardly choose an argument essay when trying to persuade a young child, whereas it would be entirely appropriate if a government official was the intended audience.

Experimenting with changes in one column only will show how vital being conscious of the purpose and audience is to the appropriate choice of text-type.

Students often fail to recognise the importance of adapting their writing to the particular purpose of a task, writing the same way despite variations in what is being asked of them.

Text-types are also known as genres. Genre can be defined as:

> 'a staged, goal-oriented purposeful activity in which speakers (or writers) engage.'
>
> (Martin 1986)

In other words:

> 'different types of texts used in our culture to get things done.'
>
> (Martin 1993)

There are as many genres as there are recognisable types of social activity. There are common written genres such as instructional texts, newspaper editorials, magazine reports and recipes. There are educational genres such as reports, narratives and procedures and there is an enormous range of everyday genres that we take part in in our daily lives, such as buying and selling, oral narratives, gossiping and exchanging opinions. All these genres are ways of exchanging messages to achieve some purpose. They have distinctive patterns, or stages through which the text moves to achieve particular purposes or goals. Students with the skills to identify different text patterns will be able to use this knowledge to read efficiently, and to make a piece of writing achieve what it is supposed to achieve. The next activity looks at common genres of school texts.

TEXT-TYPES

Learner Task 6

Workshop Task 6

7

3

- Consider way(s) the computer writing activities below are similar. How do they differ?
- Working from your responses construct a plan/outline for each of the computer activities. For example:

  Plan for Activity 4 (a technical report)

  - General statement about computers
  - Description of uses
- Compare your plan with those of other groups (workshop participants only). Can you see any emerging patterns?

Computer writing activities

1 List the steps for using an Apple Mac.

2 Finish this story:

'Once upon a time there was a little boy named Thomas. Thomas wanted very much to play 'Dragon Slayer' on the computer like his friends ...'

3 You have just attended your first in-service on using a computer. Recount the events of the day.

4 Write a technical report on the uses of computer technology in the school curricula.

5 Explain why you bought your first computer.

6 'Computers are deskilling our children.' Do you agree?

Commentary

The writing activities in Task 6 were all centred on the topic of computers. However, the purpose for each was different and therefore each text can be described as a specific genre:

Text 1 would be a procedure.

Text 2 would be a narrative.

Text 3 would be a recount.

Text 4 would be a report.

Text 5 would be an explanation.

Text 6 would be an argument.

Stages

The stages shown below for the texts reveal that the purpose for which a text is intended determines stages through which that text will move. It is this sequence of stages which helps construct the meaning, making the text say what the author intends.

The fact that for the same text you may have plans similar to ours (even if the labels to describe the stages differed) indicates that in our culture we have conventional ways of telling stories, recounting events, or formulating procedures. That is, there are social conventions that contain and determine how we tell a joke, how we gossip, how we tell a story. If someone says, for example, 'You'll never believe what happened to me yesterday', we know what follows is likely to be a narrative, that is, a story in which there is a complication and then resolution of some kind.

However, if someone says 'Listen to what Pauline did yesterday', you would expect a recount without a complication.

Knowing the conventions of the staging of different text-types and having a common set of labels with which to talk about them would allow us to assist apprentice writers initially, and then later to experiment with them in a more informed and successful way.

A functional approach is used to labelling text-types and the stages that combine to produce them. Following is a functional labelling of the activities in Learner Task 6. The stages are capitalised.

Stages of Learner Task 6 texts

Text 1: Procedure

- Statement of the goal
- Equipment needed
- Steps to be taken

Text 2: Narrative

- Orientation
- Complication
- Resolution
- (Coda)

Text 3: Recount

- Orientation
- Events

Text 4: Report

- General statement about computers
- Description of uses

Text 5: Explanation

- Phenomenon
- Explanation factors

Text 6: Argument

- Thesis
- Arguments plus elaboration
- Summing up/ Conclusion

8

4

Writing with creativity

Knowing the conventional stages that each text-type or genre will move through allows a writer to have more control over achieving a particular purpose. Take for example the critical difference between a narrative and a recount: the Complication/Resolution pattern. Young writers often fail to make their stories interesting simply because this feature of good narrative writing is still unknown to them; they tell stories in the same way as they recount the day's events at school. Once this feature is highlighted and practised, story writing dramatically improves.

It is possible to look at creativity as the ability to express something new by means of a culturally accepted practice, such as when an author chooses to begin a narrative with an orientation the reader doesn't expect. As readers, we understand what has been done through our shared knowledge of the conventional form, so a genre can be seen as a way of expressing a meaning potential rather than as a set of rules. Creativity can be more the ability to express something new by a culturally accepted practice, than the necessity to develop brand new ideas with each new text.

Learner
Task 7

Workshop
Task 7

5

Coordinator to cut up report into five sections for participants to re-assemble.

1. Look at the report below.

2. Re-order the sections of the report into the correct sequence.

3. Explain why you believe this order to be correct.

4. Identify the purpose for each section.

- -

More than half the respondents used IBM compatible machines, the remainder mostly used Apple Macintosh and few individuals used Commodore. Most machines were purchased in the last three years.

All computers had a floppy disk, hard disk and printer but only 30% had a modem and 70% a colour monitor. All Apple Macintoshs had a mouse while only 45% of IBM used a mouse.

Eighty two percent of computer users have had repairs carried out on their machines to a value over $800. Most machines have had repairs at least once in the last two years.

- -

The intended use of the computers coincided with their actual use in most cases. However, a small percentage (9%) of respondents used functions such as home accounting and education programs which had not been initially intended.

Finally, more than half of the respondents used the computer as expected; 3% slightly more than expected; 33% slightly less than expected and the final 4% of respondents used it much less than expected.

A survey was conducted to find out information about brands of computers people own; the functions they are required to perform and the amount of use each computer receives. Also information regarding the number of repairs carried out, cost of repairs and expected use was collected.

Computer Use Report

Five hundred responses to the survey were received. Of these 62% were from males. Sixty eight percent were in the 30–44 year age group and 12% in the 45 and over age group. Of the female respondents, 54% were in the 20–29 yrs, 42% in the 30–44 yrs, 3% in the 45+ over age range and only 1% in the 15–19 yrs age group.

Commentary

The report is divided into four stages and a title.

The **title** signals to the reader what the passage is about.

Stage 1 is a general statement about the purpose of the survey. It appears first because it establishes the purpose of the survey and the report and situates the reader for the rest of the report.

Stage 2 is a description of the biographical details of the participants. It is not possible for this section to go first because the words *the survey* presume that the survey has already been referred to.

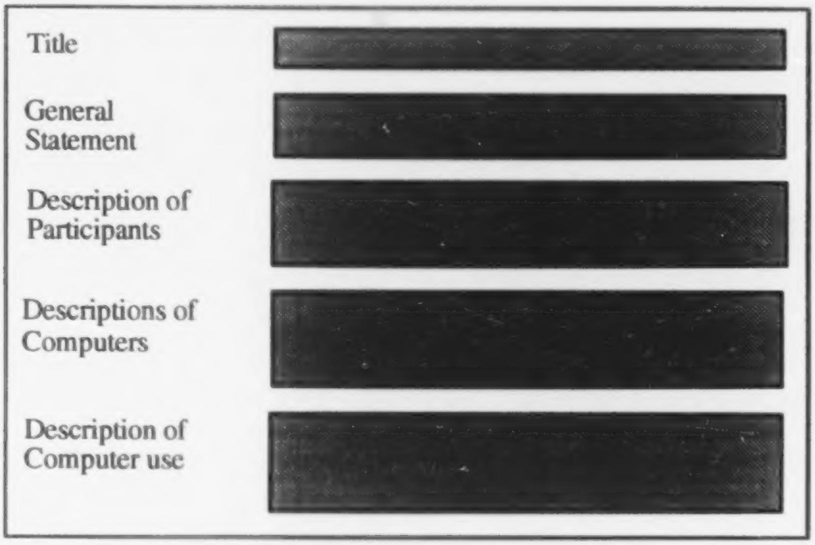
Stage 3 is a description of the results of the survey. It also refers back to the stage where the participants were introduced through *the respondents, the remainder* and *users.*

Stage 4 includes a description of the kinds of computers people used, their functions and frequency of use.

Schematic structure

The stages of a text are also referred to as the schematic **structure**. Look at the diagram of the schematic structure of the Computer Use Report.

Note that there is no final stage summing up or conclusion; this is not necessary in reports of this kind.


Title
General Statement
Description of Participants
Descriptions of Computers
Description of Computer use

9

Schematic structure of *Computer Use Report*

Stages should be labelled on the basis of the purpose which they fulfil in the text rather than the form they take or the order in which they appear. Introduction, body and conclusion are labels traditionally used to describe stages of texts which are not useful as all texts have a beginning, middle and end. It gives no real indication of purpose. The functional approach to language is a useful system of description that focuses the writer on the purpose for writing and differs from a system of description based solely on form. The original survey report follows. How does this order compare with your own?

Title	**Computer Use Report**
General Statement	A survey was conducted to find out information about brands of computers people own; the functions they are required to perform and the amount of use each computer receives. Also information regarding the number of repairs carried out, cost of repairs and expected use was collected. 6
Description of Participants	Five hundred responses to the survey were received. Of these 62% were from males. Sixty eight percent were in the 30–44 year age group and 12% in the 45 and over age group. Of the female respondents, 54% were in the 20–29 yrs, 42% in the 30–44 yrs, 3% in the 45+ over age range and only 1% in the 15–19 yrs age group.

Description of Computers

More than half the respondents used IBM compatible machines, the remainder mostly used Apple Macintosh and few individuals used Commodore. Most machines were purchased in the last three years.

All computers had a floppy disk, hard disk and printer but only 30% had a modem and 70% a colour monitor. All Apple Macintoshs had a mouse while only 45% of IBM used a mouse.

Eighty two percent of computer users have had repairs carried out on their machines to a value over $800. Most machines have received repairs at least once in the last two years.

Description of Computer Use

The intended use of the computers coincided with their actual use in most cases. However a small percentage (9%) of respondents used functions such as home accounting and education programs which had not been initially intended.

Finally, more than half of the respondents used the computer as expected; 3% slightly more than expected; 33% slightly less than expected and the final 4% of respondents used it much less than expected.

Changes in schematic structure

It is important at this point to be aware that schematic structure (the generic stages) is not fixed and unchanging but changes as cultural and social practices change over time. It is not intended that teachers or students memorise the stages, but that they be provided with the language skills and awareness to enable them to guide and assess student writing.

The theoretical modules in this course begin with the notion of genre as a way of describing language in use, a way of dealing systematically with language in its social contexts. Genre theory allows us to get away from looking at language as isolated sentences and enables us to consider how we use language to create meaningful and coherent texts.

The labels given to particular stages of a genre or text are functional labels reflecting the purpose of that stage. Referring to the opening section of any piece of writing as 'the introduction' does not distinguish between different kinds of introductions, for example, the difference between an Orientation which begins a narrative and a General Classification or Statement, which begins a report. The functional labels assist students in understanding the purposes of different stages of a text. However, they are descriptive and not intended to be used prescriptively.

MACRO-GENRE

A macro-genre is a combination of more than one genre. Secondary school textbooks characteristically contain genres which have another genre embedded in them or one genre followed by another, often without the shift being indicated to assist the reader. We call this a macro-genre. Below we see an example taken from a Geography textbook in which there is a report followed by a protocol.

Using graphs

Report

Graphs are useful in geography. They can be used to show how something changes over time, for example, how much rain on average in each month. They can also show how one thing is linked or related to another thing. How long people take to get to school, for example, may be linked to how far away from school they live.

Graphs are drawn using facts and figures. These are called observations or data. The observations are then plotted on the graph by looking at the numbers along the sides. The graph can be drawn as a line or a set of bars. Sometimes, a scatter of points can be plotted.

Every graph must have:

Protocol

1. A title which says what the graph is about.
2. Full details of the figures along the sides.
3. Carefully plotted data.
4. A comment to say what the graph tells us.

Steps in Geography,
J. Butler, R. Bateman & F. Martin 1983.

10

We have established the concepts of genres and stages (schematic structure). Now we need to look more closely at genre to explore the relationship between purpose, genre, text stages and language features through the following activity.

Learner Task 8

Workshop Task 8

11

7

A. You are driving home on a busy motorway on a rainy night. Suddenly there is a strange noise and steering is difficult — you know you have a flat tyre. Narrate in writing, for friends, how you changed the tyre and went on your way.

B. After the night's events you have to write out the procedure for changing a tyre for people who don't feel secure about what to do.

In a workshop, this activity should be done in groups, if possible (half the group do A and half the group do B), or pairs). Compare texts first by reading out versions of A and B.

List the major differences between A and B in their:

(i) structure (text stages)
(ii) language features.

Commentary

Activity A

Narrative writers may have spent a long time on the details of the setting and the actual event of the flat tyre as well as the happy or otherwise resolution of the problem. The actual changing of the tyre may have been glossed over even though this was specifically asked for in the activity.

The reason this occurs is that we know instantly what the purpose of a story is — interest, entertainment and amusement — and that the story itself — the build up, climax and solution is the key to the structure.

Activity B

On the other hand, writing the procedure for changing a tyre you might have launched into a series of points outlining the process with no embellishments about the rainy night or your anger. We know that the purpose of a procedure is to inform people how to do something and therefore the steps need to be written out clearly and logically.

Some of the answers you may have given for differences in structure and language features might be:

Structure (Text Stages)

Text A had an introduction setting the scene, then a build-up of events, a climax, and how the situation was resolved.

Text B had a series of points, perhaps numbered, in a logical sequence. It could have included a list of tools and equipment.

Language features

Text A used personal pronouns/words; was in the past tense; had many descriptive words and a time sequence.

Text B used no personal language (except perhaps the generic 'you'); was in the present tense; had no words to do with attitude or feeling; used technical jargon and had a strict time sequence.

There may have been other features you noticed about the two texts. However, you would not have confused the structure and language of the two types of texts. (Note that, if you did try to combine what was asked in writing Text A and Text B, it would have felt peculiar as the conflicting messages of narrative (story) and procedure would cause tension.) Text types or genres can be explicitly described. The purpose for which a text is intended will determine the genre chosen. This genre will be expressed not only in terms of the stages the text moves through, but also language features appropriate to that genre. So it is, that text types or genres can be explicitly described in the school context .

Learner Task 9

Workshop Task 9

12

Below we have listed a range of texts from the school context. Which of these do you think are genres? Why?

Reports
Letters
Definitions
Instructions
Notes
Letters to the Editor
Explanations
Argument Essays
Short answer questions

From the above list letters, notes and short answer questions are not genres because they don't have a definable purpose as they stand. What is the purpose of a letter? It may be to argue (argument), to explain something (explanation), to recount what you have been doing (recount), and so on. The letter is a written form (with specific layout features) which will be of use for one or more genres. The layout will tell you it is a letter, but the purpose will determine the genre.

Genres and school texts

The research conducted for this project revealed that information in the Key Learning Areas, Human Society and its Environment and Technological and Applied Studies is organised into a number of genres.

Typically, school texts (including student project work) take students from personal experience to generalisation and abstraction as they proceed through the study of a topic. Generally, the order in which knowledge is built up for students is in the order in which these materials are presented. In other words, one genre builds on another: students will normally not be plunged into a discussion before they have explored the facts in a report and perhaps an explanation or account.

The language descriptions in the course have been organised according to macro-function: each language description includes detailed descriptions of genres belonging to a particular macro-function.

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8

Macro-functions	History	Commerce	Geography	Design & Technology	**Genres**	**Texts**
Describing	√	√	√	√	reports - taxonomic - descriptive -	definitions field work reports descriptions information reports
Recounting	√	√			narratives recount - biography - historical	biographies narratives myths
Instructing		√	√	√	procedures protocols	directions recipes manuals procedures
Explaining	√	√	√		explanation account	explanation essays accounts (how, why)
Challenging	√	√	√	√	arguments discussion	debates essays

Figure 1: The macro-functions, genres and texts of History, Commerce, Geography,, Design & Technology

Genres explored for each macro-function

Describing	Reports	taxonomic
		descriptive
Recounting	Narratives	
	Recounts	recount (specific events)
		biography (people's lives)
		historical recount (generalised participants)
Instructing	Procedure	(ordered in time)
	Protocol	(general conditions)
Explaining	Explanation	(natural world)
	Account	(human world)
Challenging	Argument	(one sided)
	Discussion	(two sided)

14

9

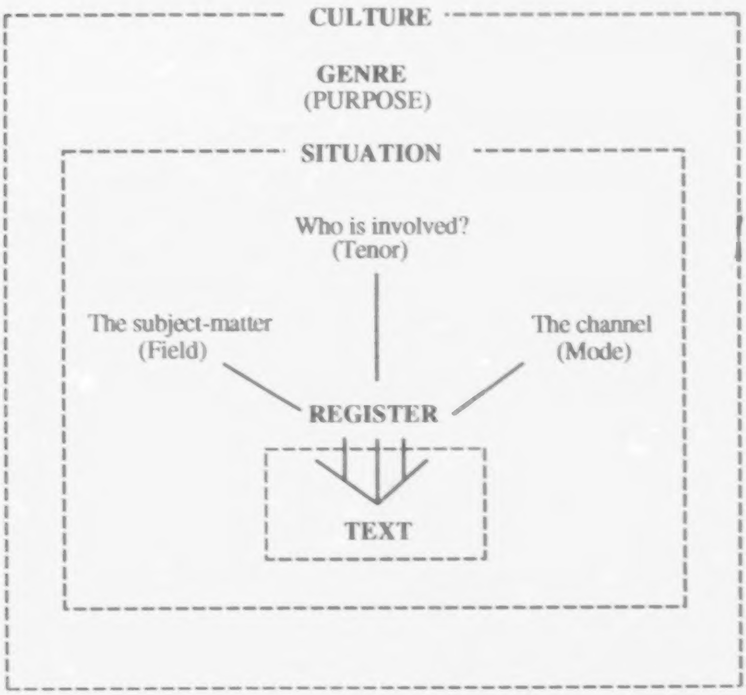
Peter Wignell's research for the project (see Outline) revealed that not every subject employs every macro-function. The subject Design and Technology does not employ the macro-functions of explaining or recounting. Similarly, History does not employ instructing. Nevertheless, it is recommended that, for a complete overview of the most commonly used and valued patterns of language use in secondary schools, all teachers complete each module in this course.

REGISTER

So far we have been discussing the whole text in terms of its purpose in the world (our society or culture). We have argued that the purpose determines the kind of text and what the text looks like (its stages).

REGISTER VARIABLES

In this section we will look more closely at texts and their contexts. It is not enough to examine the overall social purpose, we need to look at texts in more particular contexts — the situations in which they occur. For example, the social purpose of the text in Task 8 was to give instructions on how to change a tyre, but the situation involves using language to express **what** the text is about, **who** is involved and **what role** language is playing. So, there are two layers of context: the Context of Culture (genre) and the Context of Situation (register). The language choices in any text are expressions of the culture and the situation. We can represent this relationship in the diagram below.


CULTURE
GENRE
(PURPOSE)
SITUATION
Who is involved?
(Tenor)
The subject-matter
(Field)
The channel
(Mode)
REGISTER
TEXT

15

10

B. Derewianka, *Exploring How Texts Work*
PETA, 1990

We must be aware of three variables, **field**, **tenor** and **mode**, that operate simultaneously in the Context of Situation. The texts examined in the following Tasks 10, 11 and 12 have been taken from a secondary school textbook but have been adapted to demonstrate a particular point. First we will look at **field**.

Learner Task 10

Workshop Task 10

Read the text below and then answer the following questions:

a) What is it about?
b) How do you know?
c) What is the problem with it?
d) How do you know?

Fibre Groups

Some fibres used to make fabrics come from natural sources and others are man-made.

Originally, people wore skins and furs from animals they had hunted and killed for food. Later they discovered how to make threads to weave cloth from natural fibres produced by animals and plants. Living conditions in the caves were primitive and deaths were common. The most common fibres — cotton, linen, silk and wool — have been used for clothing for thousands of years.

Adapted from *Everyday Living: the basic skills*,
M. Bunney, A. Cone, J. Eagle, 1988.

Commentary

FIELD

a) This passage is about fibre groups. It tells us that the early fibres were naturally occurring.

b) We know this as it uses the words *natural fibres, skins, furs, cotton, silk* and *wool.*

c) The problem with the text is the sentence about life in the cave, which does not belong in a passage about natural fibres.

d) There has been a mismatch between the subject matter or field of the text which can be seen by considering word choices such as *living conditions*, *primitive* and *death* which are not repeated elsewhere or linked to other words in the text.

The field of a text is the topic or subject matter: it refers to what the text is about or what is happening.

Examples of fields are life in Ancient Rome; starting a business; fibres.

If we are familiar with a field we have expectations about the kind of language choices in the text, so it should not be difficult for you to group the following words under the fields above — *slave, compass, measure, profile, toga, eat, borrow, fibre.*

When we listen to or read a text, the nouns (noun groups) and verbs (processes) tell us what the text is about, that is, the field of the text.

In the school context, students are being introduced to new fields and/or reading, writing and talking about familiar fields in different, or more academic ways. It is useful to develop a way of integrating the language demands of a subject with the subject itself. The following questions about a new topic will bring the field into focus:

☐ What will be the content?

☐ Will the topic/field be presented in general or particular terms, or move from one to the other?

☐ Will the topic/field be presented in everyday or technical terms, or move from one to the other?

☐ Will the focus be on things, people or events?

☐ Will the focus be on action or a state of the world?

We have established that the field is what is going on or what the text is about. Let's now relate this to tenor:

Learner Task 11

Workshop Task 11

17

Look at the continuation of the *Fibre Groups* text below:

a) What is the relationship between the writer and the readers?

b) How do you know?

c) What is the problem?

d) How do you know?

About 150 years ago scientists discovered how to make fibres from chemical substances. Today researchers keep on improving on this stuff and invent terrific new fibres and fabrics.

TENOR

Commentary

a) The reader is an unknown student and the writer needs to maintain a distant and impersonal relationship with the reader.

b) The reader is not directly addressed by the writer.

c) The text begins with formal language but changes into informal, colloquial language.

d) The problem arises when the writer breaks with impersonal and distanced style by using informal expressions such as ***keep on improving on this stuff*** and adds a personal (attitudinal) comment such as *terrific*.

Texts vary along the tenor dimension. This dimension is influenced by the relationship of those taking part in a speech or writing event — the addressor and addressee(s). Tenor is the 'who' of the text. Different genres involve establishing and assuming different relationships between interactants. Some genres, like gossip between close friends, assume a far closer relationship than those in descriptive reports or safety procedures.

Class work on a new topic could raise the following questions about tenor:

☐ What will be the role relationship between the interactants?

☐ Will the relationship be personal or impersonal or move from one to the other (social distance)?

☐ Will it be tentative or certain, or move from one to the other?

☐ Will the mood be declarative (statements), interrogative (questions), or imperative (commands), or a mixture?

☐ Will the text state attitudes/feeling etc?

Finally, let's relate field and tenor to mode:

Learner Task 12

Workshop Task 12

18

The *Fibre Groups* text continues below.

a) Is this text more spoken or written-like?

b) How do you know?

c) What is the problem?

d) How do you know?

Man-made fibres are a useful substitute for natural fibres because unlike natural materials their availability does not depend on seasonal or climatic conditions. You know, man-made fibres have a natural base. You can add chemicals to them. Or can make them from just chemicals.

Commentary

MODE

a) The first section of the text is more written-like.

b) The well-ordered logical sequence of consequences is the result of careful and deliberate word choice.

c) In the sentences beginning *You know...* we see a break with this carefully prepared style as the writer begins to write as if speaking.

d) We see short disconnected ideas flowing one after the other introduced by *you know*, designed in speech to attract the listener's attention, or perhaps give the speaker time to think, but inappropriate in this passage of writing.

The mode of a text refers to what part the language is playing, what it is the participants are expecting the language to do for them in that situation, and whether the communication is spoken or written or a combination of the two. Mode is the 'how' of a text. In the written mode, students are learning to develop texts which are more context independent than spoken texts. With written language, the writer has to build up for the reader the relevant context for interpretation of the text. This calls for greater expertise on the part of the student/writer.

Language skills which relate to control of the written mode include learning to use conjunctions which integrate clause types; to exploit first position in the clause (Theme) appropriately; to be more discriminating about when and how to use conjunctions; to refer constantly and consistently to the relevant participants in a text, to use appropriate pronouns and synonyms; and to use vocabulary relevant to the field on which the text is centred. The following questions could assist in considering the mode of a text:

☐ Will spoken or written mode predominate?

☐ Will it be more spoken-like or written-like?

☐ Will the audience be immediate or distanced? (physical distance)

☐ Will the reference be mainly internal (related to the text) or external (related to the outside world)?

These four contextual parameters — genre, field, tenor and mode — give us tools by which we can describe, analyse and evaluate texts from different subject areas.

TO SUMMARISE

Genre refers to the overall purpose for the text. The register variables of field, mode and tenor relate the text to its context of use. We need more than genre to describe a text — we need to be able, for example, to relate texts in the same genre to other texts, so we need information on the topic of the text (field), on the role relationship between the participants (tenor) and on the mode of the text. This section has explained these variables by means of a series of questions which are summarised below for convenient reference. These dimensions determine the appropriate language to use in a text, which is the subject of the next section.

FIELD — *What is going on/what is the text about?*

19

11

- What will be the content?
- Will the topic/field be presented in general or particular terms or move from one to the other?
- Will the topic/field be presented in everyday or technical terms or move from one to the other?
- Will the focus be on things, people or events?
- Will the focus be on action or a state of the world?

TENOR — *Who is involved/What is the relationship?*

- What will the role relationship be between the interactants?
- Will it be personal or impersonal or move from one to the other? (social distance)
- Will it be tentative or certain or move from one to the other?
- Will the mood be declarative (statements), interrogative (questions) or imperative (commands), or a mixture?
- Will it state attitudes/feeling etc.

MODE — *What is the medium of communication?*

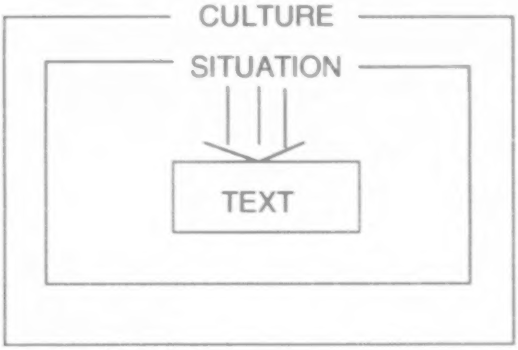
- Will spoken or written mode predominate?
- Will it be more spoken-like or written-like?
- Will the audience be immediate or distanced? (physical distance)
- Will the reference be mainly internal (related to the text) or external (related to the outside world)?

LANGUAGE FEATURES (LEXICO-GRAMMAR)

In this section we will discuss some general language features that are relevant to the language of different subject areas. By building up student knowledge and awareness of these features, students are provided with the tools to write more effectively in the different subject areas and to start to understand why a piece of writing may or may not be effective.

So far we have recognised that the choices we make when we write or speak are dependent on a number of variables.

1. **The context of culture** — the shared knowledge of language in a community. From this knowledge we have shared text-types or genres from which we can draw to achieve different purposes.
2. **The context of situation** — the way we take a generic text-type and use it in a particular situation. We simultaneously consider what the subject matter is (**field**), who is involved (**tenor**) and whether it is more spoken or written-like (**mode**). These are the **register** variables.
3. The word and structure choices from the **lexico-grammar** which will allow us to take account of the genre and register variables of field, tenor and mode.

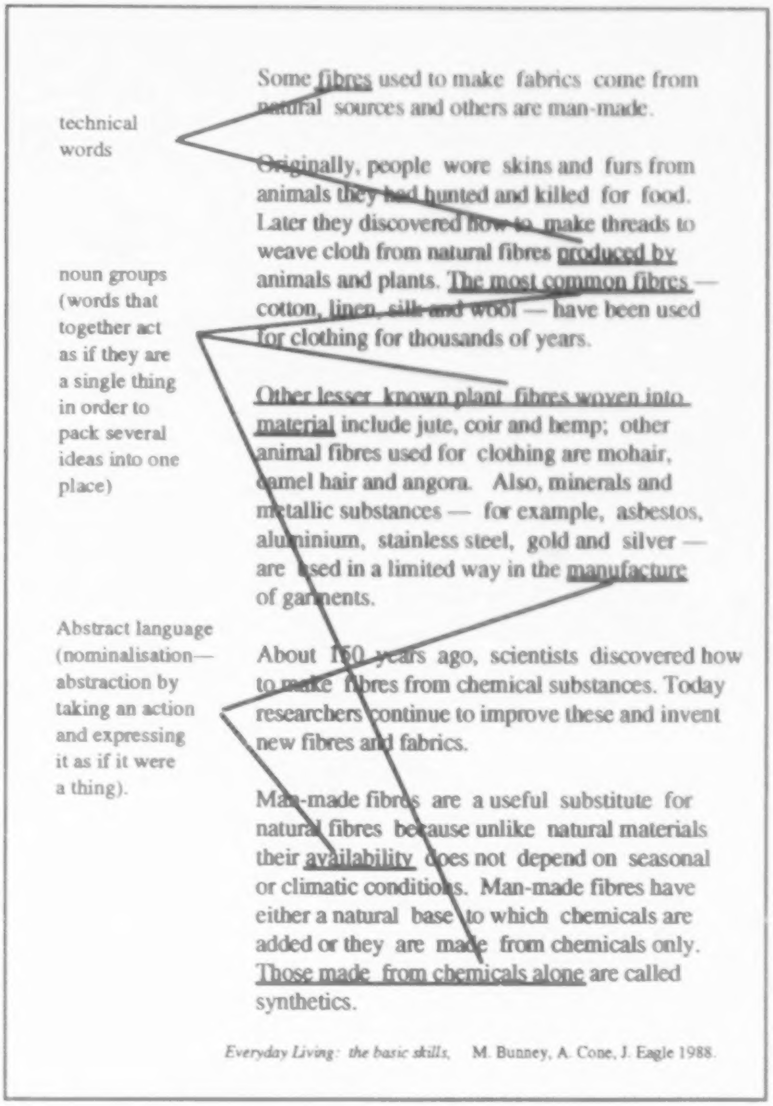


In the report which we looked at earlier, the grammatical choices are consistent with the genre and register. That is, it has:

- use of technical words;
- abstract language;
- noun groups.

20

12



technical words

Some fibres used to make fabrics come from natural sources and others are man-made.

Originally, people wore skins and furs from animals they had hunted and killed for food. Later they discovered how to make threads to weave cloth from natural fibres produced by animals and plants. The most common fibres — cotton, linen, silk and wool — have been used for clothing for thousands of years.

noun groups (words that together act as if they are a single thing in order to pack several ideas into one place)

Other lesser known plant fibres woven into material include jute, coir and hemp; other animal fibres used for clothing are mohair, camel hair and angora. Also, minerals and metallic substances — for example, asbestos, aluminium, stainless steel, gold and silver — are used in a limited way in the manufacture of garments.

Abstract language (nominalisation— abstraction by taking an action and expressing it as if it were a thing).

About 150 years ago, scientists discovered how to make fibres from chemical substances. Today researchers continue to improve these and invent new fibres and fabrics.

Man-made fibres are a useful substitute for natural fibres because unlike natural materials their availability does not depend on seasonal or climatic conditions. Man-made fibres have either a natural base to which chemicals are added or they are made from chemicals only. Those made from chemicals alone are called synthetics.

Everyday Living: the basic skills, M. Bunney, A. Cone, J. Eagle 1988.

The glossary which follows explains and gives examples of some of the key language features used in education.

You may wish to read through it now to familiarise yourself with the terminology. However, as each of the features is re-introduced in the language descriptions and teaching/learning activities where it is most relevant, you will have the opportunity to further engage with the terminology as the course proceeds.

We recommend that you keep this glossary at hand for further reference as you work through the course and as you plan your own classroom materials.

GLOSSARY OF LANGUAGE FEATURES

THEME

The Theme of a sentence is defined as what comes first in the sentence. It is a significant feature, as the Theme of the sentence is what is chosen to be the starting-point of the message by the writer; it focuses the reader's attention on the message. By changing the Theme of a sentence the meaning of the sentence can be significantly changed. Consider these two sentences from spoken language.

> 'He came at half past eight.'
> 'Half past eight he came.'

Which speaker do you think is annoyed and how do you know?

The second speaker puts the time in Theme position in the sentence, which gives the emphasis to the time. By this we can sense that the speaker is not happy about the late arrival.

The important points about Theme are:

- ☐ Every sentence begins with a Theme. You can identify the Theme of a sentence by seeing what comes first in the sentence.
- ☐ The Theme of a sentence is the starting point for what the writer wants to tell the reader.
- ☐ This use of the word *Theme* has evolved from the use of the word in the study of literature, where it refers to the main idea no matter what the position. It has been deliberately borrowed because of the importance given to words which are placed in the first position.
- ☐ By choosing the Theme of a sentence and what is new information in the sentence, the writer decides how to package information for the reader.

21

13 to 13-15

These should be handed to participants before continuing with the next module.

Typical Themes

In report writing, the natural or typical things we make as the Theme of a sentence will tend to be things rather than people. In personal letters or stories the Themes tend to be people. If you look at personal letters which recount events you will read common Themes of sentences, such as: *'I'*; *'We'*; *'The children'*.

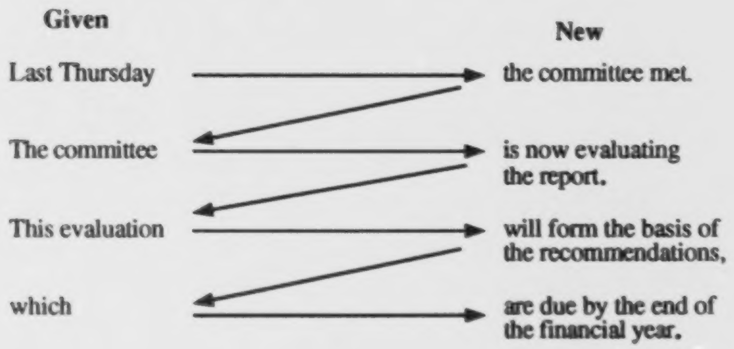
These would not be appropriate to scientific or technical report writing where the focus is not so much on people but on technical things and processes. This is what is meant by saying that the style of report writing tends to be impersonal rather than personal.

GIVEN AND NEW INFORMATION STRUCTURE

22

The natural element or information to become the Theme of a sentence is the information already given to the reader in the text. The Theme in English sentences tends to be already known or familiar information.

Information which we place at the end of the sentence is typically new information for the reader. It is information which we have not yet told the reader about.

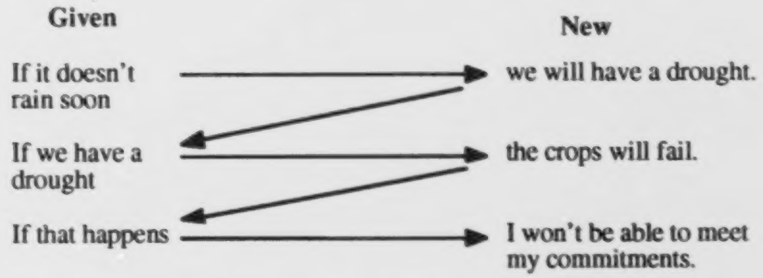


Given	New
Last Thursday	the committee met.
The committee	is now evaluating the report.
This evaluation	will form the basis of the recommendations,
which	are due by the end of the financial year.

By looking at the above pattern we can track the flow of information through the sentences.The natural place for the new information is at the end of the sentence. The packaging of information in this sentence follows the normal pattern where given or known information is the Theme of the sentence, and new information is at the end of the sentence.

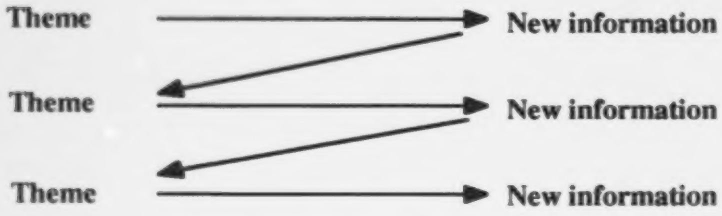
Once new information has been introduced it can subsequently be picked up to become the Theme of the following sentence — the starting point for the message of the next sentence.

See how this pattern recurs in the following three sentences:



Given	New
If it doesn't rain soon	we will have a drought.
If we have a drought	the crops will fail.
If that happens	I won't be able to meet my commitments.

Explaining a process involved in a particular phenomena using this pattern of given and new information allows the writer to build up a cause and effect sequence of events, known as an **implications sequence.**



THE PASSIVE

The passive voice is the opposite of the active voice. Putting it very simply, if a sentence is active the active participant of the action comes first and the thing acted upon comes last. If the sentence was passive the thing the action is done to would come first, and the active participant would come last. For example:

Passive The bunsen burner was lit.
Was lit is a passive voice construction.

Active We lit the bunsen burner.
Lit is an active voice construction. 23

By moving from the active voice construction *We lit the bunsen burner* to the passive voice construction *The bunsen burner was lit,* we see the person(s) *(we)* disappear. The focus shifts from being on the person doing the action, to what is being done — the bunsen burner being lit. In reports and explanations students often don't realise that it is inappropriate and not relevant to mention their own opinions, or who did the investigations or the research. In these cases, students often choose the active voice which is inappropriate in that particular genre, eg, 'I think we need to consider a number of criteria', or 'We lit the bunsen burner'.

Thematisation

Thematisation refers to the deliberate placing in the position of Theme (ie first in the sentence) a word or words which are the focus of the message. So the above examples would become 'A number of criteria needs to be considered', and 'The bunsen burner was lit'.

Conscious manipulation of Theme and the use of the passive are very powerful tools for teachers to highlight when working with students.

THE NOUN GROUP

A group of words which function as if they were a single noun is called a noun group. We can build up information around the noun and turn it into a lengthy structure which carries many elements of meaning tightly packed together. It is a resource which allows us to compress meanings into a single clause, eg:

- '**the wheat** which the farmer allowed to ripen in the sun and become golden ...'

  becomes

  'the sun-ripened, golden wheat ...'

24

- **the foam** which is white and is made from polystyrene has been expanded ...

  becomes

  'the white, expanded polystyrene foam'.

In these examples we see a noun followed by an adjectival clause being replaced by a noun group.

Inside the noun group

Noun groups expand on the meaning of the noun and make it more precise. They do so by using describing and/or classifying words that belong to the noun itself, eg:

> Polyester is a synthetic fibre. *Synthetic* allows the writer to classify the fibre.
>
> Polyester is a hardwearing synthetic fibre. *Hardwearing* allows the writer to describe a feature of the fibre.

The words *hardwearing synthetic fibre* form a noun group. You will notice that:

- the classifier comes immediately before the noun;
- in a sentence where both a describer and classifier are used the describer comes before the classifier, eg;

a **large**	**isometric**	**drawing**
describer	classifier	noun

- the describer describes the noun itself rather than describing the classifier;
- describers and classifiers can appear independently of each other.

These resources are particularly important in technical writing where the intention is often to classify (taxonomise) or describe information. By using a noun group which contains a classifier and/or a describer a writer can be precise about a technical description.

When developing a taxonomy from a report you can point out to students that what you are trying to do is to look for the relationships between the things being studied. These relationships are often signalled in the classifier inside the noun group.

Mature writing uses this resource to pack ideas tightly together and create a text that is economical and convincing. However, students often find it difficult to construct these noun groups and also to unpack their meaning when they encounter them in reading. It is important to support students as they experiment with using this language resource in a systematic way through the modelling phase of the teaching/learning cycle. They often miss some of the detailed information built into noun groups, and can fail to understand the relationships between words which have been hidden by the choice of a noun group as opposed to a more lengthy spoken-like structure where those relationships are all spelt out.

VERBS

If we think of verbs not in terms of 'doing' words, but rather in terms of words which represent what's happening in the world, we broaden the traditional grammatical category 'verb' into the functional category of 'process'.

In other words, we could describe the world in terms of the processes which link the participants in the world with what's going on, eg:

25

The students conducted a survey
participant process participant

If we think about the function these processes are fulfilling rather than just their form, it becomes possible to think of them as being grouped into a number of types. Educational genres each use specific types of verbs to achieve their purpose. The most central to the genres used in Human Society and its Environment and Technological and Applied Studies are called **action verbs** and **relational verbs**.

Action Verbs

Action verbs are the verbs which express the actions or happenings of the 'real' world around us eg:

a) One of the Aboriginal men **went** to the top of the hill.

b) **Press** the T square stock firmly against the working edge of the drawing board.

As we can see from the two examples, action verbs are a common way of building field-specific information. Action verbs are easily identifiable by students, and being able to identify them as one of the language resources a writer uses to construct the field enables the students to track through the development of information in their reading, and to stay on track in their writing.

If we now look at the development of the extracts from which the examples were drawn, we can see the use of action verbs in expressing how events unfolded.

26

a) One of the Aboriginal men **went** to the top of a hill and **stayed** there watching the white men **come** closer and closer. He told his men that the strange men **were coming**, and one by one they **took** their spears to the very top of the hill. Then two of the Aboriginals **rolled** some big rocks down the hill towards the white men. But they saw the rocks coming and **hid** themselves in a corner. The rocks **rolled** past them. The Aboriginal men thought that the strange men **were killed**, but they **were hiding** behind a big rock. Then the white men saw a black man and **fired** a gun. The Aboriginals **ran away** and **hid** themselves again.

b) **Press** the T square stock firmly against the working edge of the drawing board with your left hand. **Move** the drawing sheet so that its lower edge rests on the working edge of the T square blade. Both the drawing sheet and the T square **are now moved** so that the drawing sheet **can be located** close to the top left hand corner of the drawing board.

Other verbs which often look like action verbs are:

Mental: The Aboriginal men **thought** that ...

Verbal: He **told** his men ...

During this course, we will only focus on action and relational verbs.

Relational Verbs

27

These are the processes which define or set up relationships between one thing and another. They express meanings about what things **are,** eg:

to be, to consist of, to exist, to become, to be called,

and about what things **have,** eg:

to have, to own, to belong to.

Relational verbs are not about doing an action as are action verbs, but rather about being, presenting a view of the world in which things are defined or relationships between things are expressed. This view of the world is critical to the genres of report, explanation and argument and provides the means through which knowledge is constructed in these genres.

Look at the extract below, taken from a report in which the relational verbs build up a view of the relationships which are central to the construction of knowledge about the field.

> When water evaporates, it changes into an invisible gas **called** water vapour. When air **contains** a lot of water vapour, we say the humidity **is** high. At different temperatures, air **can hold** different amounts of water vapour. When the air **cannot hold** any more water at a particular temperature, we say that the air is saturated or that it **has** a relative humidity of 100 per cent. If the air **is carrying** only three-quarters of the water it is capable of carrying then it **has** a relative humidity of 75 per cent; if it **is carrying** half its capacity, then its relative humidity **is** 50 per cent, and so on. Relative humidity, then **is** a measure of the amount of water vapour **being carried** in air of a particular temperature compared with the total it **could carry** at that temperature.

If teachers can identify the types of verbs central to the construction of a genre, they can assist students to recognise and use this language resource:

- in reading;
- to unpack the relationship between words and access the information in the text and in writing;
- to draw on this resource to help make their writing successful.

NOMINALISATION

Nominalisation is another technique for organising or packaging the information or content of our sentences. Often nominalisation is the only way we can get the information which we want to highlight into thematic position at the beginning of the sentence.

> 'The committee **is** now **evaluating** the report. This **evaluation** will ...'

Nominalisation could be called objectification or 'thing-isation'. In this process we take a meaning that would normally come as a verb or adjective and dress it up as a noun. What is really a process, a property or attribute in the real world is treated in language as if it were a thing.

Here are some examples of nominalisation from verbs to nouns:

28

a process (a verb)	**nominalised (a noun)**
adjust	adjustment
assess	assessment
measure	measurement
require	requirement
allocate	allocation
observe	observation
calculate	calculation
produce	production
test	testing
write	writing
upgrade	upgrading
maintain	maintenance
avoid	avoidance

Note that nouns ending in -tion, -ment, -ing, -ance are often nominalised forms of verbs.

Nominalisation is a powerful language feature which often distinguishes spoken-like language from written-like language. We use it to make educational writing seem more abstract and technical. Nominalisation often requires the use of the passive voice, eg:

'We **measured** the distance at the end of the experiment'

becomes

'**Measurement was conducted** at the end of the experiment'.

Here are some examples of nominalisation from adjectives:

29

property or attribute (an adjective)	**nominalised (a noun)**
accurate	accuracy
inadequate	inadequacy
long	length
white	whiteness
straight	straightness

Nominalisation is typical of technical and scientific writing, where meanings that would normally come as verbs are packaged as nouns.

Look at the following examples of nominalisations which come from reports. Remember a nominalisation is the process of packaging **doing** or **happening** as a thing. The process can be reversed and nominalisations can be unpacked turning the nouns back into verbs and adjectives.

'We have to **maintain** the building so that it **doesn't fall into disrepair**'

becomes

'Building maintenance prevents **deterioration'.**

This example highlights how nominalisation provides the writer with a powerful tool for controlling the required impersonal and objective tone of technical and scientific writing.

MODALITY

There are a number of ways in which we can soften the words we choose in speaking and writing. One such tool is modality.

30

It refers to the area of meaning that lies between 'yes' and 'no' and is concerned with the issues of probability and usuality.

	PROBABILITY		**USUALITY**
+ ↑	DEFINITELY	+ ↑	ALWAYS
	certainly		usually
	probably		sometimes
	maybe		occasionally
	unlikely		rarely
– ↓	DEFINITELY NOT	– ↓	NEVER

Verbs can also be used to express this kind of precise meaning.

+↑ IT MUST BE

it will be
it may be
it might be
it could be

– ↓ IT WON'T BE

Similar to modality is the resource which expresses obligation and inclination, which is known as **modulation**, eg 'I have to', 'he should', 'I'd like to, would you?'

In addition, we can use this kind of resource to state an opinion as if it were a fact:

31

it is obvious that ...
it stands to reason that ...
the conclusion can hardly be avoided that ...
all authorities on that subject are agreed that ...
writers in this field argue that ...

Students who have a command of this language resource are able to express their meaning more accurately and argue their case more convincingly. In reading, students can recognise how the writer has used this resource to modify their ideas or to attempt to lead the reader to interpret the text the way the writer intends.

The following words can be used to provide the speaker/writer with a range of options to make their meaning more precise, rather than make an absolute statement.

32

PROBABILITY/ OBLIGATION

certainly
surely
probably
perhaps
maybe
possibly
definitely
positively

USUALITY

always
often
usually
regularly
typically
occasionally
seldom
rarely
ever
never
once

PRESUMPTION

evidently
apparently
presumably
clearly
no doubt
obviously
of course

INCLINATION

gladly
willingly
readily

DEGREE

- quite
- almost
- nearly
- totally
- entirely
- utterly
- completely
- literally
- absolutely
- scarcely
- hardly

TIME

- yet
- still
- already
- once
- soon
- just

INTENSITY

- just
- simply
- ever
- only
- really
- actually

33

COHESION

34

Cohesion is the grammatical means by which a text hangs together. It is what makes the difference between a text that forms a unified whole and one that is just a collection of unrelated words.

Consider the following piece of writing:

> 'He liked neither eggs nor milk. They liked neither swimming nor running. She liked neither Peter nor Paul.'

These sentences have something in common — similarity of structure — but they are not a text. The three sentences together do not form a unit of meaning. There is nothing there that would prevent us rearranging the order of the sentences.

The following sentences have a similar structure:

> 'Upon waking that day Pedro neither shaved nor washed. He had neither the time nor the inclination to do so. This was because the events of the previous day had left Pedro tired.'

Here, however, if we were to alter the order we would certainly destroy the meaning, for the meaning is created by the cohesive ties that link the sentences into a unified text.

Texts can hang together in a number of ways: through the vocabulary (lexis), through reference, and through connectives.

Learner Task 13

Workshop Task 13

What language strategies has the writer used to make the following text cohesive?

35

Before and after buffalo

During the 1820s to 1840s, buffalo were brought to the 'top end' of Australia from Timor. They were used for fresh meat and as draft animals. Soon after, settlements were abandoned and buffalo spread through the Northern Territory. They particularly liked wet areas, such as rivers and flood plains.

Learning to look through a Geographer's Eyes
Book 2, N. Gallagher, J. Oliver & I. Wilson, 1988.

Commentary

The above passage hangs together as a unified whole by the use of the three systems of vocabulary (lexical chains), reference and connectives.

Vocabulary (lexical chains)

The selection of vocabulary appropriate to the field gives unity.

36

During the 1820s to 1840s, buffalo were brought to the 'top end' of Australian from Timor. They were used for fresh meat and as draft animals. Soon after, settlements were abandoned and buffalo spread through the Northern territory. They particularly liked wet areas, such as rivers and flood plains.

The circled words are an example of a lexical chain. Another lexical chain in the text is:

top end Australia Northern Territory

Reference

Another device used to link sentences together is reference. Substituting *they* for the vocabulary items relating to buffalos allows the text to flow without have to repeat the subject, *buffalos*.

37

> During the 1820s to 1840s, buffalo were brought to the 'top end' of Australian from Timor. They were used for fresh meat and as draft animals. Soon after, settlements were abandoned and buffalo spread through the Northern territory. They particularly liked wet areas, such as rivers and flood plains.

Students not only have difficulty using reference to make their writing more coherent, but often make incorrect assumptions about what is being referred to. Reference can be further complicated by the reference word being used some distance from the word to which it refers. Student can often become confused, eg:

> 'Peter's comments about Brian's book do not do him credit.'

In the example above him refers to Peter even though it is closer to Brian in the text.

The complexity of the referencing system in English means that teachers cannot assume that students can understand who or what is being referred to. Practice in unpacking reference and using it as a writing tool may be necessary.

Connectives

The sentences in the buffalo text are also linked by using connecting words.

38

> During the 1820s to 1840s, buffalo were brought to the 'top end' of Australian from Timor. They were used for fresh meat and as draft animals. Soon after, settlements were abandoned and buffalo spread through the Northern territory. They particularly liked wet areas, such as rivers and flood plains.

and — additive connective
soon after — temporal connective
such as — exemplifying connective

It is important for students to have a rich enough repertoire of connectives to allow them to express the relationship between ideas accurately. Equally, they must be able to understand the relationships being expressed in a text .

A Year 9 student produced the sentence: 'I stood on an ant **but** it died'. The student should have written either: 'I stood on an ant **and** it died', or 'I stood on an ant **but** it **didn't** die'.

39

The student has failed to understand that *'but'* is a connective that should be used to contrast two ideas. The use of *'and'* would have been the correct connective, in the sense of its ability to convey the idea of consequence.

COMMON CONNECTIVES

40

Below is a list of common connectives which may be useful.

Temporal Connectives

first (second, third, etc)
when
now
at this point
meanwhile
after a while
previously

finally
next
lastly
at this moment
next time
in the end
before that

then
here
until then
soon
at once
afterwards

Additive Connectives

also
furthermore
moreover
but
in addition

as well
and
not only
while
without

besides
additionally
whereas

Exemplifying Connectives

for example
as exemplified by
such as
consequently

for instance
including
accordingly

for one thing
these include
through

Comparison/Contrast Connectives

however
in spite of this
whereas
on the other hand
in other respects

nevertheless
differs from
on the contrary
rather
elsewhere
either/or

instead
on the other hand
also
in that respect
alternatively
neither/nor

Cause/effect Connectives

so
consequently
as a consequence of
yet
despite this
all the same
accordingly
then
as a result

hence
an effect of
otherwise
still
however
nevertheless
so as
as a result of

an outcome of
therefore
because
caused by
in that case
though
even though
under the circumstances

CONCLUSION

In this module three levels of language — genre, register (involving field, tenor mode), and language features — were outlined. The glossary section focusing on the third level, highlighted language features such as Theme, given and new, the passive, verbs, noun groups and nominalisation, modality and cohesion.

In the section dealing with genre, we argued that the concept of genre provides us with a useful starting point for looking at how language varies from subject to subject. Learning Science or Maths, for example, involves learning how to construct texts relevant to these disciplines, that is, it involves learning how meaning is effected in different ways. To learn a subject involves learning how to address issues and solve problems in a way which is characteristic of that particular discipline. These ways of reasoning or enquiring are realised or created in appropriate text patterns. For example, certain genres are more critical for effective learning in Science than they are in English or History. Some of the genres for writing in Design and Technology, for example, are procedures, reports, and argumentative writing, whereas for History there is a greater focus on such genres as explanation, biography and historical accounts, which interpret historical events. These genres of different subject areas need to be explicitly dealt with; it is very difficult for students to learn these just by immersion, and many students fail to do so.

In the whole module we have argued that teachers need to build up knowledge of the language demands of their particular subject areas. In order to do this they need to develop a metalanguage: a language to talk about language. This language to talk about language enables teachers and students to generalise from one situation to another. We have outlined one kind of metalanguage in this module, that which is incorporated into the systemic functional model of language.

In the following theoretical modules we will explore in more detail genres or text-types of different subjects and the language which is characteristic of these genres.

It is suggested that you next complete Module Three.

ACCESSING LEARNING

module three

LANGUAGE AND LITERACY DEVELOPMENT IN KEY LEARNING AREAS

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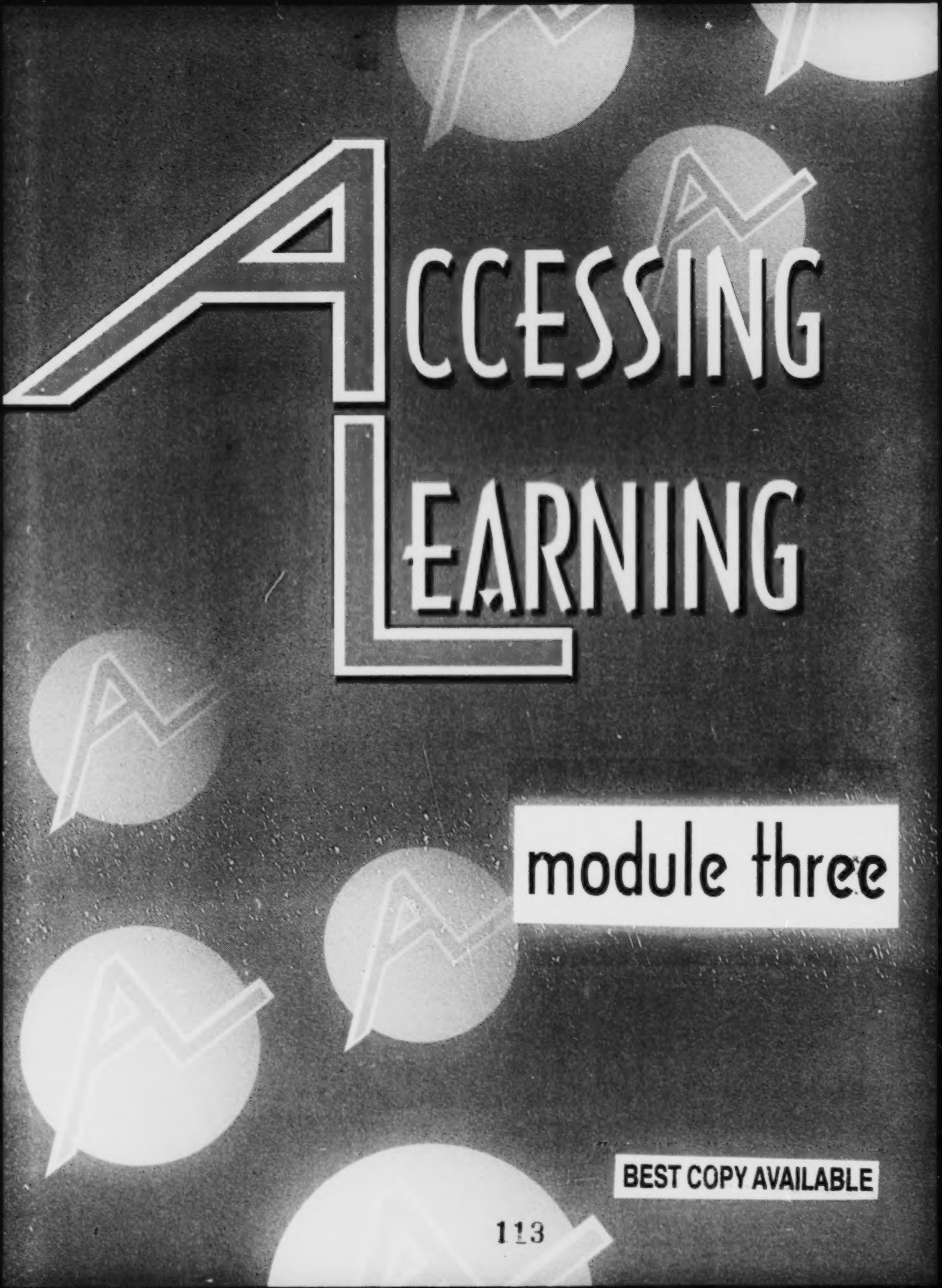

ACCESSING LEARNING

module three

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ISBN
1 86382 051 5 (The complete kit)
1 86382 052 3 (The Outline and all Modules)
1 86382 053 1 (The Blackline Masters)

Funded through the Literacy and Learning General Element, Commonwealth Department of Employment, Education and Training.

Printed and published by the Catholic Education Office, P.O. Box 217, Leichhardt NSW 2040.
Phone (02) 569 6111 Fax (02) 550 0052

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ACCESSING LEARNING

the language we use for describing

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INTRODUCTION

The language we use for describing is essential to both the Key Learning Areas of Human Society and its Environment (HSIE), and Technological and Applied Studies (TAS).

When things are described in the world it is necessary to identify and name them, and classify them in some way. Much of the reading, writing and talking in the school context is to do with moving students from an everyday language of getting and giving information to more academic discourses. In this language description we consider how information is organised culturally (as in History) and technically (as in Commerce, Geography and the TAS subjects).

Describing is a particular way of giving information. The text type most commonly associated with describing is the report genre. Reports describe and classify functions intrinsic to most key learning areas and to many other school subjects.

In the following section we highlight characteristic language features of the report genre to discuss with your students. When students experience difficulty in either reading or writing in this genre you will be able to use this section to help you pinpoint the source of difficulty and address it with a shared understanding and metalanguage.

TEXTS

There are six texts used in this description. You will find them, together with 'A' versions showing their stages at the end, beginning on page 14.

List of texts

Text 1: Report (Commerce) page 14
Text 2: Report (Geography)
Text 3: Report (Materials Technology)
Text 4: Report (Drawing)
Text 5: Report (Textiles and Design)
Text 6: Report (History)

Text 1A: Report (Commerce) Stages page 20
Text 2A: Report (Geography) Stages
Text 3A: Report (Materials Technology) Stages
Text 4A: Report (Drawing) Stages
Text 5A: Report (Textiles and Design) Stages
Text 6A: Report (History) Stages

REPORTS

Learner Task 1

> The report Texts 1-6 are taken from secondary textbooks. Read the one(s) relevant to your subject and then consider these questions:
>
> What is the purpose of this report?
>
> Who would read it and why?

Workshop Task 1

1

1 - 1-5

PURPOSE: TAXONOMIC AND DESCRIPTIVE REPORTS

Commentary

Reports are a kind of factual writing. The purpose of the genre is:

> '...to describe the way the world is, or more accurately, how information about our world is organised in various disciplines.'
>
> Christie et al. 1992:2

Taxonomic reports

In Geography, Commerce and the subjects in Technological & Applied Studies, most of the information about our world is presented in a specific kind of report called a taxonomic report. This genre is crucial to students getting a picture of how the fields of Geography, Commerce and TAS subjects are organised. A taxonomic report organises the different parts of the field as the table of contents of a textbook reflects the overall organisation of the subject. Then, within chapters, further organisation of parts of the subject appear.

The taxonomic report identifies what the parts are, then defines and classifies them and shows how they fit together in either a part/whole (eg lathe: headstock, tailstock) or class/subclass relationship (eg fibres: wood, silk and cashmere). These relationships are called taxonomies. Unfortunately, they are often left implicit in a text and students have to struggle to deconstruct the text and get from it the important information.

Taxonomic reports develop technical vocabulary at the same time as they develop relationships between things. Technical vocabulary is often defined by using more everyday vocabulary that students would know or by giving examples which could be more familiar.

In this way a static view of a subject or topic is built up. That is, parts are identified and linked together. Students get information about the way this bit of the world **is** and should be able to derive and understand taxonomies and technical terms/definitions from these reports.

Descriptive reports

In History, information about our world is constructed and presented in different kinds of reports called descriptive reports. Unlike reports in technical subjects, these reports do not necessarily set up taxonomies. Rather, they focus on activities at a particular time or over a period of time. They differ from recounts (a genre dealt with in Module 4) in that the descriptions are about generic classes of activities, 'life in Rome', not specific ones 'my life in Rome', and they focus on describing features of events or artefacts rather than the people involved.

Descriptive reports build historical information by describing generalised features of life over a span of time. They represent a movement in the school context from describing particular events or things to describing general ones. (Note that an activity asking students to imagine they are Roman slaves can often confuse them if they are to write a descriptive report, that is, if the texts which will be most valued by the teacher are reports rather than recounts or narratives. Although the trend is to feel that students engage more with history if they are asked to write an individualised imaginative reconstruction in the narrative genre, in fact, historians often do not highly value the retelling of history in this genre, and these kinds of texts are usually not the ones which succeed in assessment and exam contexts.)

STAGES OF A REPORT

Both taxonomic and descriptive reports focus on things in the world. In the examples on the previous pages the focus is:

Equity & Assets (Commerce);

Ecosystems (Geography);

Pictorial Drawings (Drawing);

Lathes (Materials Technology);

Fabrics (Textiles & Design); and

Life in Rome (History).

What is focused on, the field or topic, is often introduced by a title or heading.

General Statement/Classification

The first part of the report is a General Statement or Technical or Scientific Classification. This Statement or Classification locates the field or topic in the world. It relates it to bigger fields, to enable the reader to fit it into wider information about the world. It sometimes states the reason for the existence of the rest of the report.

In some reports in textbooks there may not be a general statement or Technical Classification. The General Statement or Classification often occurs earlier in the text or is assumed, which may confuse the student reader.

Description/Classification

The General Statement or Technical or Scientific Classification is followed by factual information describing the topic. This information defines and describes parts, appearance, habits, behaviours, functions. It is organised into various paragraphs with topic sentences. Sometimes, especially in technical subjects, the paragraphs are introduced by a subheading which helps to make the important information more explicit.

Different kinds of graphics are often an integral part of reports, eg diagrams, graphs, illustrations, tables etc. The graphics are not a separate part of the text but help construct specific information, eg the appearance of something (drawings).

Summary of stages

The generic structure or staging of taxonomic reports can be represented as:

General Statement or)
Technical Classification) ^ Classification 2

The symbol ^ indicates 'is followed by'

The generic structure or staging of descriptive reports can be represented as:

General Statement ^ Descriptions

Reports classify and describe.

Learner Task 2

Now you have information on the purpose and structure of reports, look back at the reports from your subject.

1. How would you divide the text into stages?
2. Label each stage.
3. When you have completed the labelling you may like to compare yours with the 'A' versions beginning on page 20. If you have time, look at other subject reports and try out your skill.

Workshop Task 2
Coordinator to direct participants.
2 - 2-5

LANGUAGE FEATURES

In this section we will look more closely at how the world is described in reports and focus on how language is chosen to do this.

Learner Task 3

Read the questions below in relation to the working text you have chosen.

1. How does the first sentence or heading of each stage in the report tell what the stage is going to be about?
2. Does the report give us **general** information about people/things/events or does it discuss **particular** people/things/events (participants)?
3. Are there expressions of attitudes or feelings? If so, note down a few examples.
4. Are there technical terms? How are they defined and/or classified?

Workshop Task 3
3

Commentary

Patterns emerge of language used in reports and how meanings are constructed in order to achieve the overall purpose of describing certain things in the world.

Some of the most important language features of reports are outlined below and related to the questions above.

4

3

1. The first sentence or heading of each stage of a report usually indicates what the stage is about. In a sense, each description is like a mini-report, the first sentence of which often provides a general statement or classification.

2. Generalised participants. Participants are the people or things which are being described, eg *Romans, men, women, fabrics, cotton, lathe, headstock, drawings, draftsmen, ecosystems, water, air.*

3. Non-attitudinal vocabulary. There are no examples of personal feelings or attitudes in taxonomic reports and they rarely occur in descriptive reports, eg:

   - *Wool is the fleece of the sheep,* rather than 'wool is the beautiful fleece of the soft, white sheep'.

   - *The lathe is divided into four main parts* rather than 'the lathe, which I hate to use, is divided into four main parts'.

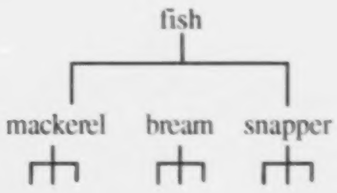
4. Technical/descriptive vocabulary. The language is organised in the text to enable classification and/or definition (see Module Two Glossary of Language Features: The Noun Group). In particular, note the position just before the noun in a noun group, where we find the classifier, that is, the word that tells us 'type' and which may be used in a taxonomy.

GRAPHIC TAXONOMIES

In Geography, Commerce and TAS subjects information can be represented diagrammatically as taxonomies to make relationships explicit.

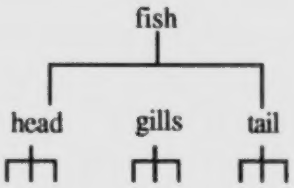
Things in the world can be related to each other by having a category, eg 'fish', and then naming the types of fish in it: 'mackerel', 'bream', 'snapper' etc. Each of these types could be divided into further subclasses. This is a class/subclass taxonomy.

5



Class/subclass taxonomy of types of fish

On the other hand, a part/whole taxonomy defines and classifies parts of things in relation to the whole so, using the fish example above, a taxonomy would have 'fish' as the first level, followed by 'head', 'gills', 'tail'.


fish
head
gills
tail

Part/whole taxonomy of parts of fish

Learner Task 4

Try to draw a taxonomy from the report in your subject.

While it is possible to draw a taxonomy from the History text, as it functions principally as a descriptive report, it is probably not very useful to do so. Instead, see Task 5 on page 12.

Workshop Task 4

Coordinator to direct participants. Teachers of History have an alternative task on page 12.

Commentary

Commerce report: Text 1

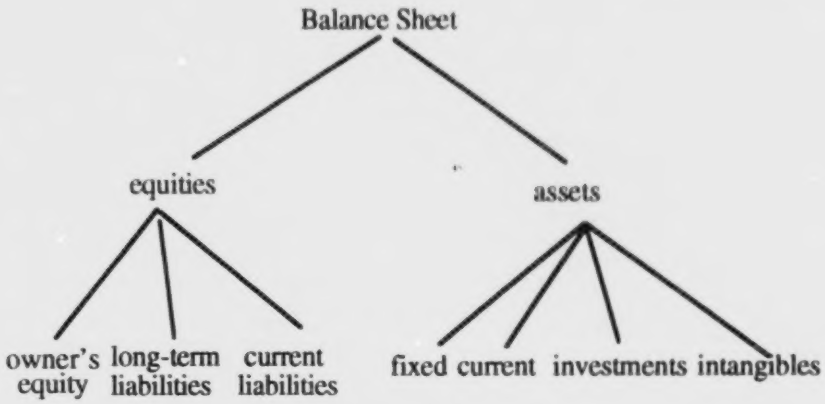
As discussed earlier this report sets up terms and relationships in the field of assets and equities.

4 to 4-6

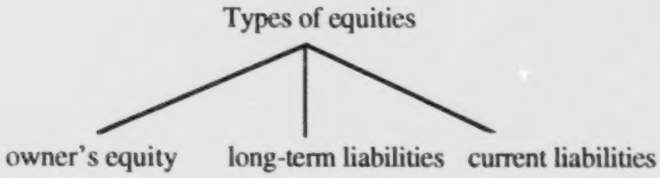
Fields need to be set up for and with students. The technical vocabulary of the subject/field/topic is identified, defined and arranged taxonomically in the text.

6

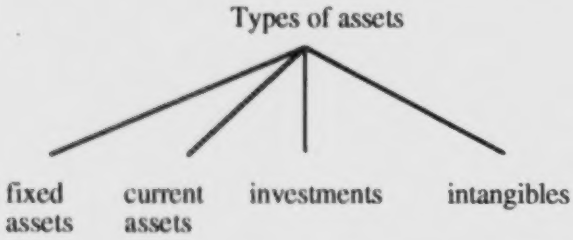
From the *Equities and Assets* report we can draw out the following taxonomies.


Balance Sheet
equities
assets
owner's equity
long-term liabilities
current liabilities
fixed
current
investments
intangibles

1. Class/subclass taxonomy of equities and assets



2. Class/subclass taxonomy of types of equities



3. Class/subclass taxonomy of types of assets

A Commerce teacher may be able to extend the taxonomies above even further.

The language is organised in the text to enable the identified types of equities and liabilities to be classified and described. If you look back at the report you will see that each entry on the taxonomy can be found just before the noun which is being classified. Students who are having difficulty understanding the relationships between technical words in a passage will find it very useful to know where to look to find 'what type of' asset or equity they are looking for.

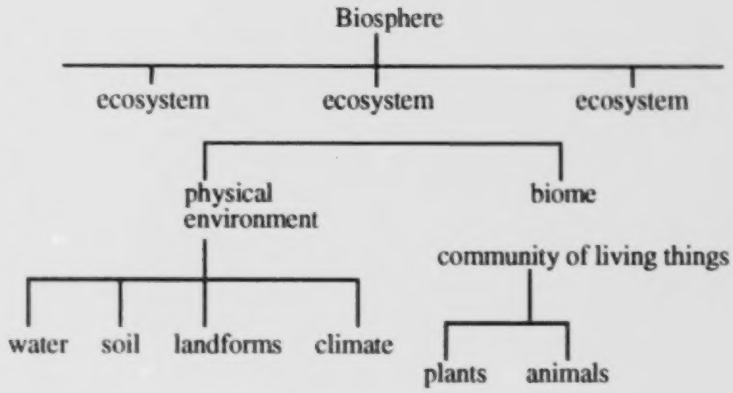
Unfortunately, writers often try to write things in new and creative ways to make a text look more interesting. This can be confusing for readers who have to sort through the different language choices to find/remember the taxonomy.

This text is really a series of definitions (mini-reports) with clear headings and subheadings, eg *Owner's Equity*, to guide understanding and learning.

Geography report: Text 2

The Geography *Ecosystem* report is also an example of how we define and classify the world. This report takes a feature of the world, ecosystems, and divides it into its component parts.

The prime feature is the language of definition and classification, for example: ***An ecosystem is**........; **the physical environment consists of** ... .* The report takes a large area of experience and divides it into its component parts.



7

Part/whole taxonomy of an ecosystem

Commentary

The *Ecosystems* text may be difficult for students to understand and remember because it contains many technical words (some of which may be new) in varying relationships; students may not have enough background knowledge to read this text. As can be seen from comparing the written text and the taxonomy above, the former begins with a subclass — *ecosystems* — and works down two more levels or classes and then in paragraph 2 goes back to the main class — *biosphere* — and classifies it in relation to ecosystems. In fact, the relationship between ecosystem and biosphere is still somewhat unclear. This text could be confusing for students who are trying to piece together and understand the technical definitions and relationships.

It is interesting to note that this text actually appears to present minimal reading difficulties for students, with its short sentences and use of a high proportion of everyday terms. However, the difficulty of drawing an accurate taxonomy from the text highlights the necessity to look not only for simplified language but also for a clear representation of the relationships the report seeks to establish.

In the *Ecosystem* text the technical words are in bold. They are defined and related to each other to build up students' technical knowledge.

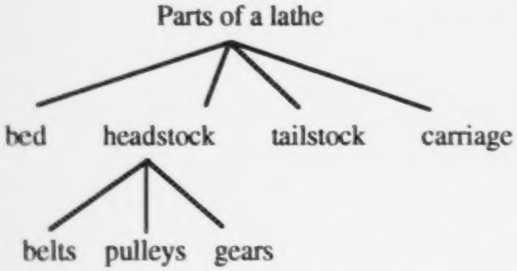
Note that the main process used through the text is a relational process (being verb: *is/are, consists*). This process relates one part of the world to another by saying something 'is' something else. This is the way definitions and classifications work. There will always be is/are/have verbs or equivalents in reports. On the other hand, recounts and procedures (other genres) have mainly action verbs.

Materials Technology report: Text 3

In the Materials Technology text, *Parts of a Lathe,* the words *Parts of* indicate the type of taxonomy — part/whole.

The lathe *is divided* into four main *parts*: bed, headstock, tailstock and carriage, the words *is divided* and *parts,* indicate the type of taxonomy and the subheadings, which makes the following taxonomy clear.

8


Parts of a lathe
bed
headstock
tailstock
carriage
belts
pulleys
gears

Part/whole taxonomy of parts of a lathe

Materials Technology teachers may be able to extend the taxonomy. Four separate taxonomies for uses of bed, headstock, tailstock and carriage could be developed.

Drawing report: Text 4

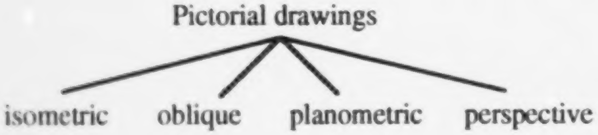
In the report, *Pictorial Drawings,* the taxonomy is introduced by the following sentence:

Four pictorial drawing methods are used by draftsmen:

1. Isometric, 2. Oblique, 3. Planometric, 4. Perspective.

The taxonomy is quite simple:

9


Pictorial drawings
isometric
oblique
planometric
perspective

Class/subclass taxonomy of types of pictorial drawings

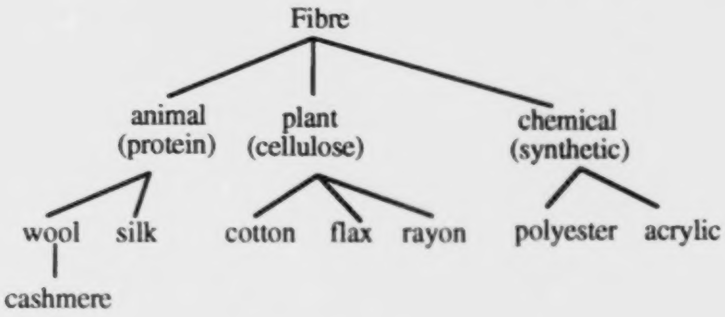
A Drawing teacher may be able to extend this taxonomy.

Textiles and Design report: Text 5

The *All About Fabrics* report has the same function as most reports in technical textbooks. It is aimed at initiating students into a technical understanding of the world, as shown by its emphasis on definition and classification. This shift from everyday to technical is especially important in Textiles and Design because it is more likely that students will have everyday experience of the subject than of other technology subjects (we all wear clothes).

The taxonomy is introduced by the sentence: *Fibres can be divided into three categories.*

From the text the following taxonomy can be drawn:



10

Class/subclass taxonomy of types of fibre

The writer of this text has made understanding the classification of fibres easier by a tree diagram. Think about how the taxonomy above makes the vertical and horizontal relationships even clearer for students.

The following section of text lists attributes of fabrics.

> The look and feel of fabrics can be described in the following ways: smooth, soft, silky, rough, scratchy, furry, uneven, stiff, firm, sticky, slippery, dull, loopy, lumpy, shiny.
>
> *Textiles & Design*, T. Hymes and E. Kovesdy

It is not a taxonomy but a list of technical attributes. This type of list was not found in other technology subjects. It is, however, necessary to this subject, since it is because of these qualities that some fabrics are suitable for certain articles.

History report: Text 6

Everyday Life in Rome is a different kind of report from those in Commerce, Geography and Technological & Applied Studies. Although the text is about the past, it is about general features of the lives of people for a span of time, rather than individual people doing particular things at a particular time.

In History, we often refer to generic (general) classes of people, events or things rather than individual people, events or things.

Learner Task 5

In the History report, *Everyday Life in Rome* (Text 6), underline the human participants, eg *a Roman person*. Are they specific or general participants? Why is this so?

Workshop Task 5
Coordinator to direct workshop participants

Commentary

See the following text where all the human participants are marked. In this text they are generalised, that is they refer to general classes of humans rather than individual people. This is characteristic of descriptive reports in History. Teachers need to help students move from writing about individuals to being able to write generalised descriptions.

EVERYDAY LIFE IN ROME

This unit will help you build a picture of everyday life in Ancient Rome at the time of Caesar's invasions.

But remember that the life of a Roman person depended on whether they were rich, poor or a slave and on their sex and their age. Life in Ancient Rome was not the same in 200 BC as it was in AD 200, and living conditions were different in Roman Gaul, Roman Africa and Rome itself. So there were many variations to the details of life described below.

Clothes

Roman men and women wore a short-sleeved tunic, tied at the waist. These were usually knee-length for men, and ankle-length for women. Poor people, workmen and slaves would wear these tunics in the street, but the wealthy would always wear a *toga* over their tunic. This was a large piece of cloth wrapped around the body and draped over one shoulder. It was the symbol of the roman citizen, a sign of status. Cloaks would be worn in cold weather, when leather shoes replaced open sandals. Slaves usually went barefoot.

Eating

Breakfast was usually bread, cheese and a little wine or water. Lunch was a bigger meal of cold meat, vegetables and fruit, again with bread and wine or water. The main meal was dinner in the early evening, perhaps at five o'clock. There would be several courses. Beef, mutton and pork were the most common meats eaten, but rich people treated their guests to more exotic meats, including flamingoes, peacocks, storks, doves and dormice.

Spoons and knives were used, but forks were not, because most eating was done with the fingers. Men usually lay on their side on a couch and helped themselves to food from a low central table; women and children often sat on upright chairs. For many Roman families, the meal would be served by slaves.

Family life

The Roman wife shared her husband's social position outside the home and his authority inside it. Men were very much in control of their children, who were expected to be obediently loyal to their father even when they grew up. This sense of duty helped the Roman army control its soldiers. Fathers found husbands and wives for their children during their teens. Girls could marry at twelve, boys at fourteen.

Skills in History, Book 1 - Changes,
P. Shuter & J. Child

CONCLUSION

Once you have closely examined the report from your own subject you might like to read the reports from other subject areas to see how they are structured and presented in other disciplines.

Students are moved from everyday knowledge into technical knowledge through reports which identify and name relevant parts of the world and classify them. In the History report, students read about a slice of history — a generalised description of everyday life. This is a move from describing a particular life or time to describing general classes of things or people.

It is useful for students to be able to look across subject areas and see which subjects value the report genre and the similarities in the ways different fields are organised in different subjects.

There are Classroom Units in The Language We Use For Describing for Geography, Commerce, History, and Design and Technology.

Before proceeding to these it is recommended that you complete the Teaching/Learning Activity: Reworking a Student Text, and the Introduction to the Classroom Units which follow.

TEXT 1: REPORT (COMMERCE)

1

The following passage examines types of equities and assets.

Types of Equities

1 ***Owner's Equity***
Proprietor's funds will consist of three items. Firstly, there will be the money invested in the business by the owner, ie capital. Secondly, added to this will be any profits which the business has made. Thirdly, any drawings which the owner made from the business (eg cash for personal use) will be deducted.

2 ***Long Term Liabilities***
These are debts which have to be repaid over a longer period of time. An example might be a loan from a bank for the purchase of a building or a motor vehicle repayable over five years.

3 ***Current Liabilities***
These are debts which have to be repaid in a relatively short period of time. Current liabilities would include accounts payable (eg where goods are supplied on credit and the business owes the supplier for the stock received) or a bank overdraft.

Types of Assets

1 ***Fixed Assets***
Fixed assets would include such items as motor vehicles, machinery and equipment. Fixed assets do not change greatly over the period of a year.

2 ***Current Assets***
Current assets include such items as cash on hand, accounts receivable (money owed to the firm by individuals or other businesses) and stock. Current assets will change repeatedly over the period of a year.

3 ***Investments***
In some instances the business may invest part of its funds by buying Government Securities or by purchasing shares in other businesses. However, if no investments have been made, this item will not appear on the balance sheet.

4 ***Intangibles***
As the name suggests, intangibles are assets which cannot be seen or touched. They are nevertheless valuable to a firm and include items such as goodwill and possession of patents.

Using the headings (or classifications) for equities or assets set out above we can now construct a more detailed balance sheet.

Adapted from *Commerce Two*, B. Parker, T. Clarke, P. Carter

TEXT 2: REPORT (GEOGRAPHY)

1-1

This section relates the physical environment to living things.

An **ecosystem** is the system by which a community of plants or animals are able to live. Ecosystems are made up of the physical environment and the **biome**. The physical environment consists of all the things necessary for life, such as water, soil, landforms and climate. The biome is the community of living things in this environment.

The **biosphere** is the surface of the earth — the land, water and air above it in which all living things are found. The biosphere is made up of hundreds of different ecosystems. In all the different ecosystems, plants and animals depend on one another in much the same way as parts of a stereo system depend on other parts. Geographers study ecosystems and look at ways in which many have been changed by the activities of people.

Introducing Geography, S. Weingarth

TEXT 3: REPORT (MATERIALS TECHNOLOGY)

1-2

Parts of a lathe
The lathe is divided into four main parts: bed, headstock, tailstock and carriage.

Bed
The bed is the foundation of the lathe. It is made from cast iron and rigidly secured to the lathe stand. The top surface of the bed is accurately machined to form the bed ways or vee ways. All of the other parts of the lathe sit on and slide along these bed ways. The accuracy of the lathe is determined by the accuracy of the ways and care should always be taken to keep them in perfect condition.

Headstock
The headstock is secured to the left-hand end of the bed and sits on the bed ways, its main purpose being to supply the motive power for the lathe. The headstock contains the belts, pulleys or gears which bring the power from the motor to the work piece so that it can be machined.

Tailstock
The tailstock has the job of supporting the loose end of the metal while it is machined. The tailstock can be used to support a drill chuck for drilling as well as other devices.

Carriage
The carriage is used to support the lathe tool and move it so as to cut the metal. It slides along the bed ways.

Metalworking Part One, Second Edition,
Barry W. Ableson, Allan J. Pateman

TEXT 4: REPORT (DRAWING)

1-3

PICTORIAL DRAWINGS

Introduction

The main use made of pictorial drawings is in technical illustrations, catalogues and spare parts manuals. People who have had no previous technical training can understand these 'pictures' as they show the three faces of the object.

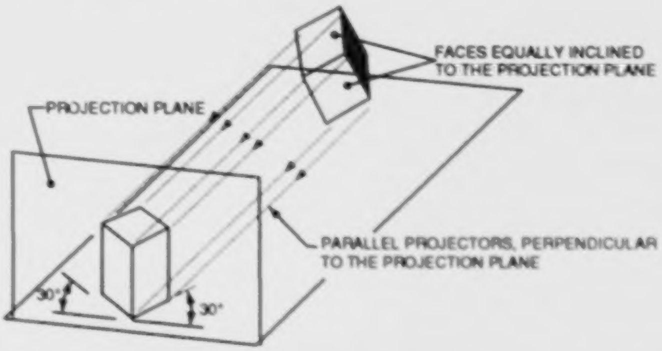
Four pictorial drawing methods are used by draftsmen:

1. Isometric 2. Oblique 3. Planometric 4. Perspective

Pictorial drawings are all produced on a single projection plane which is so placed as to give a projection showing the main faces of the object. It is very unusual to show hidden outlines, sections being used instead to show internal details.

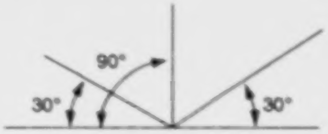
Isometric drawings

This projection is produced on a plane that is equally inclined to the principal faces of the object, the projectors are parallel and perpendicular to the projection plane.


FACES EQUALLY INCLINED TO THE PROJECTION PLANE
PROJECTION PLANE
PARALLEL PROJECTORS, PERPENDICULAR TO THE PROJECTION PLANE
30°
30°

The edges of the object are all inclined to the projection plane and the projections of these edges would be 80% of their true length. In isometric drawing this reduction is ignored and the dimensioned sizes are set off on the three isometric axes.

Figure 2 shows the three isometric axes.



Programmed Technical Drawing Book 2 , SI Units,
R.K. Mullins & D.A. Cooper

TEXT 5: REPORT (TEXTILES AND DESIGN)

1-4

All about fabrics

During your school years, you will be working with many different types of fabrics. They will be used for different reasons, purposes and in different ways. But what do you know about fabrics?

In this section you will be introduced to the fabrics and the fibres they are made from.

As mentioned in the introduction, fabrics are textile materials that have been woven, knitted or felted together. Fabrics are made from fibres. Fibres are thread-like substances that are spun or twisted into yarns, which are then made into fabrics.

Fibres

Fibres can be divided into three categories.

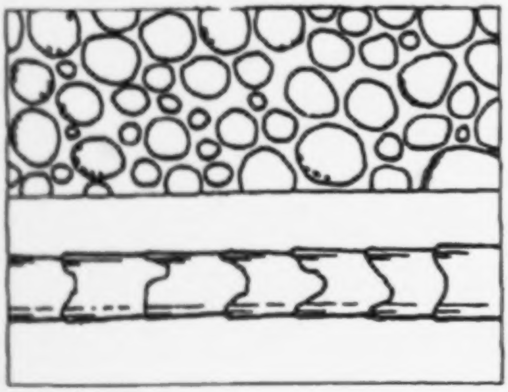
Animal (protein)	Plant (cellulose)	Chemical (synthetic)
wool	cotton	polyester
silk	flax	acrylic
cashmere	rayon	

The most common fibres used are wool, cotton and polyester.

Wool

Wool is the fleece of the sheep that is spun and woven after the animal has been shorn. Different qualities of wool come from different varieties of sheep. Fleeces from merino sheep are most commonly used in Australia.

Wool is a protein fibre called ***keratine***. Like human hair, wool fibres have scales which overlap each other. It is because of these scales, which trap in the air, that wool keeps you feeling warm or cool.



cont.

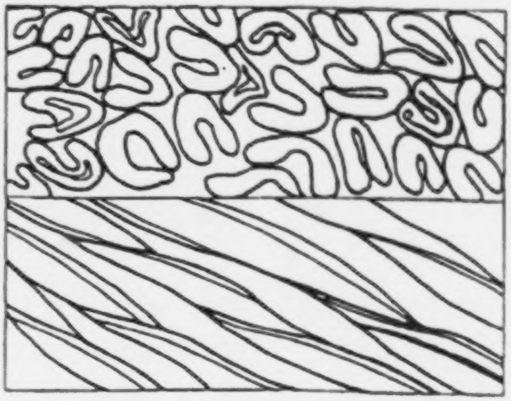
TEXT 5 continued

1-5

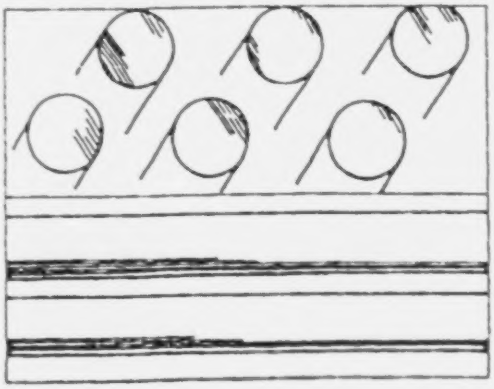
Cotton
Cotton comes from the seed pod of the cotton plant. It is a cellulose fibre, consisting of plant cells, and has different properties from protein fibres. The cotton plant is a dark green, bushy plant that grows in warm, moist climates. In Australia, cotton is grown in northern New South Wales and Queensland.

Cotton is a fibre with a gentle twist.

Cotton may also go through a process called mercerisation. This is when cotton is treated in a bath of diluted caustic soda, which strengthens the fibre, gives it a shine and allows it to take dyes more readily.



Polyester
Polyester is a synthetic fibre that is made from by-products of petroleum and chemicals. It is a very straight and smooth fibre.



Textiles & Design,
T. Hynes & E. Kovesdy

TEXT 6: REPORT (HISTORY)

1-6

Everyday Life in Rome

This unit will help you build a picture of everyday life in Ancient Rome at the time of Caesar's invasions.

But remember that the life of a Roman person depended on whether they were rich, poor or a slave, and on their sex and their age. Life in Ancient Rome was not the same in 200 BC as it was in AD 200, and living conditions were different in Roman Gaul, Roman Africa and Rome itself. So there were many variations to the details of life described below.

Clothes

Roman men and women wore a short-sleeved tunic, tied at the waist. These were usually knee-length for men, and ankle-length for women. Poor people, workmen and slaves would wear these tunics in the street, but the wealthy would always wear a toga over their tunic. This was a large piece of cloth wrapped around the body and draped over one shoulder. It was the symbol of the roman citizen, a sign of status. Cloaks would be worn in cold weather, when leather shoes replaced open sandals. Slaves usually went barefoot.

Eating

Breakfast was usually bread, cheese and a little wine or water. Lunch was a bigger meal of cold meat, vegetables and fruit, again with bread and wine or water. The main meal was dinner in the early evening, perhaps at five o'clock. There would be several courses. Beef, mutton and pork were the most common meats eaten, but rich people treated their guests to more exotic meats, including flamingoes, peacocks, storks, doves and dormice.

Spoons and knives were used, but forks were not, because most eating was done with the fingers. Men usually lay on their side on a couch and helped themselves to food from a low central table; women and children often sat on upright chairs. For many Roman families, the meal would be served by slaves.

Family life

The Roman wife shared her husband's social position outside the home and his authority inside it. Men were very much in control of their children, who were expected to be obediently loyal to their father even when they grew up. This sense of duty helped the Roman army control its soldiers. Fathers found husbands and wives for their children during their teens. Girls could marry at twelve, boys at fourteen.

Skills in History, Book 1 - Changes,
P. Shuter & J. Child

REPORT 1A (COMMERCE)

2

General Statement

The following passage examines types of equities and assets.

Classifications

Types of Equities

1. *Owner's Equity*
   Proprietor's funds will consist of three items. Firstly, there will be the money invested in the business by the owner, ie capital. Secondly, added to this will be any *profits* which the business has made. Thirdly, any drawings which the owner made from the business (eg cash for personal use) will be deducted.

2. *Long Term Liabilities*
   These are debts which have to be repaid over a longer period of time. An example might be a loan from a bank for the purchase of a building or a motor vehicle repayable over five years.

3. *Current Liabilities*
   These are debts which have to be repaid in a relatively short period of time. Current liabilities would include accounts payable (eg where goods are supplied on credit and the business owes the supplier for the stock received) or a bank overdraft.

Types of Assets

1. *Fixed Assets*
   Fixed assets would include such items as motor vehicles, machinery and equipment. Fixed assets do not change greatly over the period of a year.

2. *Current Assets*
   Current assets include such items as cash on hand, accounts receivable (money owed to the firm by individuals or other businesses) and stock. Current assets will change repeatedly over the period of a year.

3. *Investments*
   In some instances the business may invest part of its funds by buying Government Securities or by purchasing shares in other businesses. However, if no investments have been made, this item will not appear on the balance sheet.

4. *Intangibles*
   As the name suggests, intangibles are assets which cannot be seen or touched. They are nevertheless valuable to a firm and include items such as goodwill and possession of patents.

Using the headings (or classifications) for equities or assets set out above we can now construct a more detailed balance sheet.

Adapted from *Commerce Two*, B. Parker, T. Clarke, P. Carter, 1988

REPORT 2A (GEOGRAPHY)

2-1

General Statement

This section relates the physical environment to living things.

Part/Whole Classification

An **ecosystem** is the system by which a community of plants or animals are able to live. Ecosystems are made up of the physical environment and the biome. The physical environment consists of all the things necessary for life, such as water, soil, landforms and climate. The biome is the community of living things in this environment.

The **biosphere** is the surface of the earth — the land, water and air above it in which all living things are found. The biosphere is made up of hundreds of different ecosystems. In all the different ecosystems, plants and animals depend on one another in much the same way as parts of a stereo system depend on other parts. Geographers study ecosystems and look at ways in which many have been changed by the activities of people.

Introducing Geography,
S. Weingarth

REPORT 3A (MATERIALS TECHNOLOGY)

Technical Classification

Parts of a lathe
The lathe is divided into four main parts: bed, headstock, tailstock and carriage.

Part/Whole Classification

Bed
The bed is the foundation of the lathe. It is made from cast iron and rigidly secured to the lathe stand. The top surface of the bed is accurately machined to form the bed ways or vee ways. All of the other parts of the lathe sit on and slide along these bed ways. The accuracy of the lathe is determined by the accuracy of the ways and care should always be taken to keep them in perfect condition.

Headstock
The headstock is secured to the left-hand end of the bed and sits on the bed ways, its main purpose being to supply the motive power for the lathe. The headstock contains the belts, pulleys or gears which bring the power from the motor to the work piece so that it can be machined.

Tailstock
The tailstock has the job of supporting the loose end of the metal while it is machined. The tailstock can be used to support a drill chuck for drilling as well as other devices.

Carriage
The carriage is used to support the lathe tool and move it so as to cut the metal. It slides along the bed ways.

Metalworking Part One, Second Edition,
Barry W. Ableson, Allan J. Pateman

REPORT 4A (DRAWING)

2-2

PICTORIAL DRAWINGS

Technical Classification

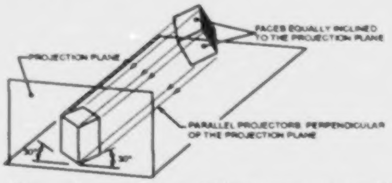
Introduction
The main use made of pictorial drawings is in technical illustrations, catalogues and spare parts manuals. People who have had no previous technical training can understand these 'pictures' as they show the three faces of the object.

Four pictorial drawing methods are used by draftsmen:

1. Isometric 2. Oblique 3. Planometric 4. Perspective
Pictorial drawings are all produced on a single projection plane which is so placed as to give a projection showing the main faces of the object. It is very unusual to show hidden outlines, sections being used instead to show internal details.

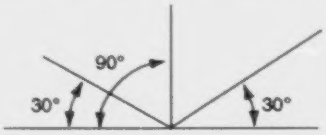
Class/Subclass Classification

Isometric drawings
This projection is produced on a plane that is equally inclined to the principal faces of the object, the projectors are parallel and perpendicular to the projection plane.


FACES EQUALLY INCLINED TO THE PROJECTION PLANE
PROJECTION PLANE
PARALLEL PROJECTORS PERPENDICULAR OF THE PROJECTION PLANE
30°
30°

The edges of the object are all inclined to the projection plane and the projections of these edges would be 80% of their true length. In isometric drawing this reduction is ignored and the dimensioned sizes are set off on the three isometric axes.

Figure 12.2 shows the three isometric axes.



Programmed Technical Drawing Book 2, SI Units,
R.K. Mullins & D.A. Cooper

REPORT 5A (TEXTILES AND DESIGN)

2-3

General Statement

All about fabrics
During your school years, you will be working with many different types of fabrics. They will be used for different reasons, purposes and in different ways. But what do you know about fabrics?

In this section you will be introduced to the fabrics and the fibres they are made from.

Class/Subclass Classifications

As mentioned in the introduction, fabrics are textile materials that have been woven, knitted or felted together. Fabrics are made from fibres. Fibres are thread-like substances that are spun or twisted into yarns, which are then made into fabrics.

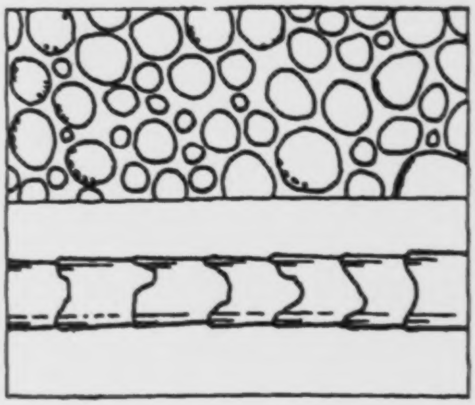
Fibres
Fibres can be divided into three categories.

Animal (protein)	Plant (cellulose)	Chemical (synthetic)
wool	cotton	polyester
silk	flax	acrylic
cashmere	rayon	

The most common fibres used are wool, cotton and polyester.

Wool
Wool is the fleece of the sheep that is spun and woven after the animal has been shorn. Different qualities of wool come from different varieties of sheep. Fleeces from merino sheep are most commonly used in Australia.

Wool is a protein fibre called *keratine*. Like human hair, wool fibres have scales which overlap each other. It is because of these scales, which trap in the air, that wool keeps you feeling warm or cool.



Textiles & Design,
T. Hynes & E. Kovesdy

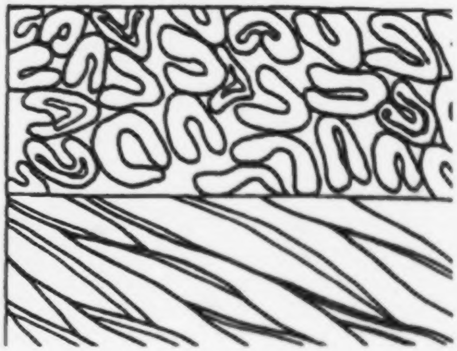
REPORT 5A Continued

2-4

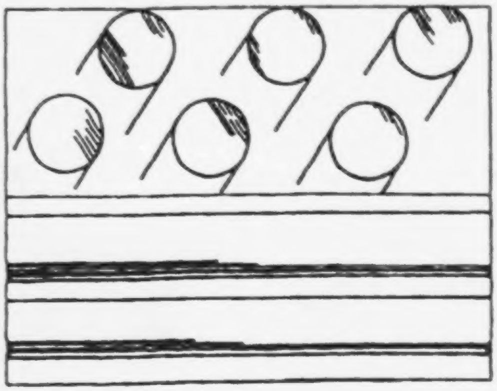
Cotton
Cotton comes from the seed pod of the cotton plant. It is a cellulose fibre, consisting of plant cells, and has different properties from protein fibres. The cotton plant is a dark green, bushy plant that grows in warm, moist climates. In Australia, cotton is grown in northern New South Wales and Queensland.

Cotton is a fibre with a gentle twist.

Cotton may also go through a process called mercerisation. This is when cotton is treated in a bath of diluted caustic soda, which strengthens the fibre, gives it a shine and allows it to take dyes more readily.



Polyester
Polyester is a synthetic fibre that is made from by-products of petroleum and chemicals. It is a very straight and smooth fibre.



Textiles & Design,
T. Hynes & E. Kovesdy

REPORT 6A (HISTORY)

Everyday Life In Rome

2-5

General Statement

This unit will help you build a picture of everyday life in Ancient Rome at the time of Caesar's invasions.

But remember that the life of a Roman person depended on whether they were rich, poor or a slave, and on their sex and their age. Life in Ancient Rome was not the same in 200 BC as it was in AD 200, and living conditions were different in Roman Gaul, Roman Africa and Rome itself. So there were many variations to the details of life described below.

Descriptions

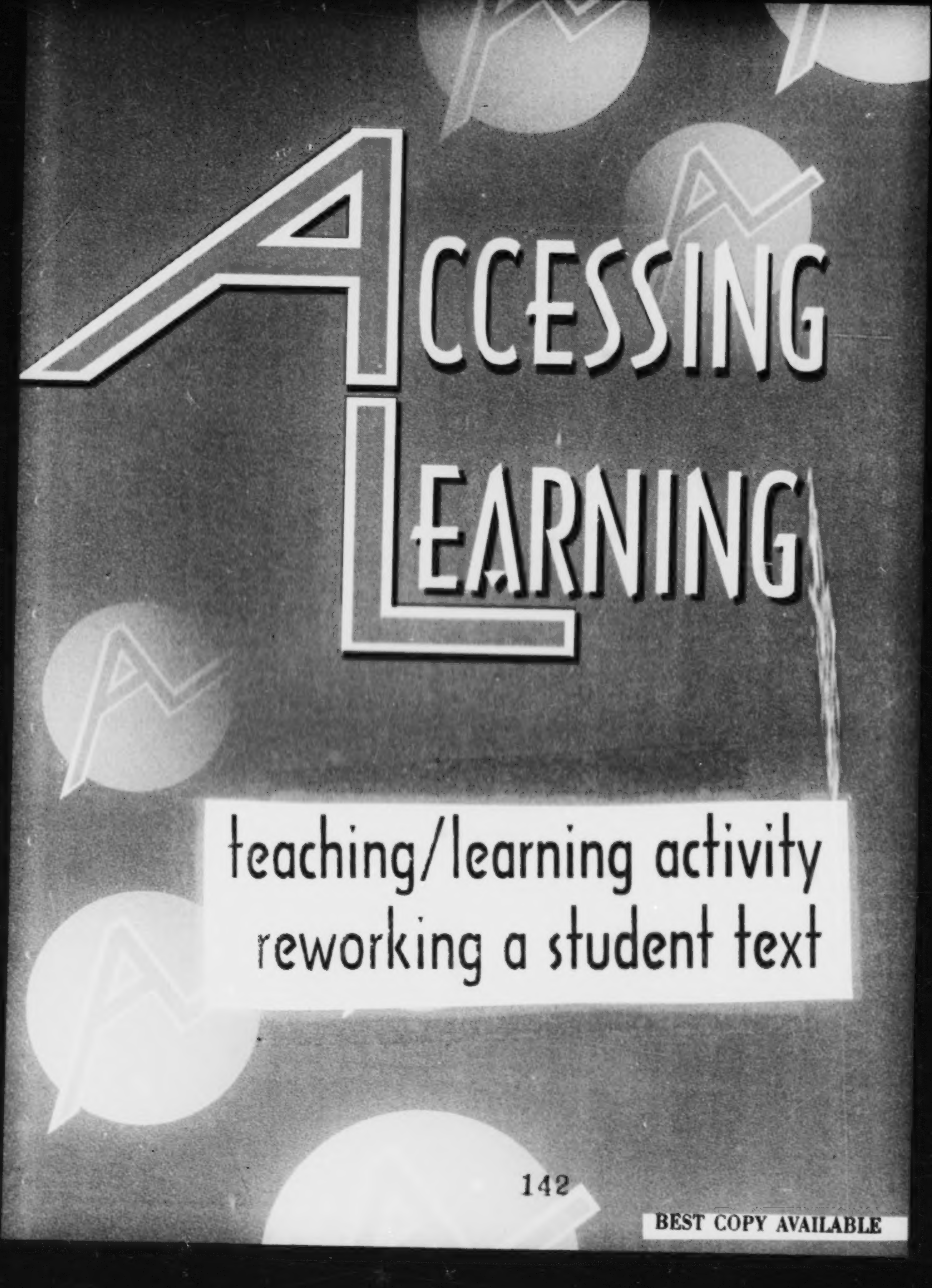
Clothes
Roman men and women wore a short-sleeved tunic, tied at the waist. These were usually knee-length for men, and ankle-length for women. Poor people, workmen and slaves would wear these tunics in the street, but the wealthy would always wear a toga over their tunic. This was a large piece of cloth wrapped around the body and draped over one shoulder. It was the symbol of the roman citizen, a sign of status. Cloaks would be worn in cold weather, when leather shoes replaced open sandals. Slaves usually went barefoot.

Eating
Breakfast was usually bread, cheese and a little wine or water. Lunch was a bigger meal of cold meat, vegetables and fruit, again with bread and wine or water. The main meal was dinner in the early evening, perhaps at five o'clock. There would be several courses. Beef, mutton and pork were the most common meats eaten, but rich people treated their guests to more exotic meats, including flamingoes, peacocks, storks, doves and dormice.

Spoons and knives were used, but forks were not, because most eating was done with the fingers. Men usually lay on their side on a couch and helped themselves to food from a low central table; women and children often sat on upright chairs. For many Roman families, the meal would be served by slaves.

Family life
The Roman wife shared her husband's social position outside the home and his authority inside it. Men were very much in control of their children, who were expected to be obediently loyal to their father even when they grow up. This sense of duty helped the Roman army control its soldiers. Fathers found husbands and wives for their children during their teens. Girls could marry at twelve, boys at fourteen.

Skills in History, Book 1 - Changes,
P. Shuter & J. Child



ACCESSING LEARNING

teaching/learning activity
reworking a student text

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Learner Task 1

Workshop Task 1

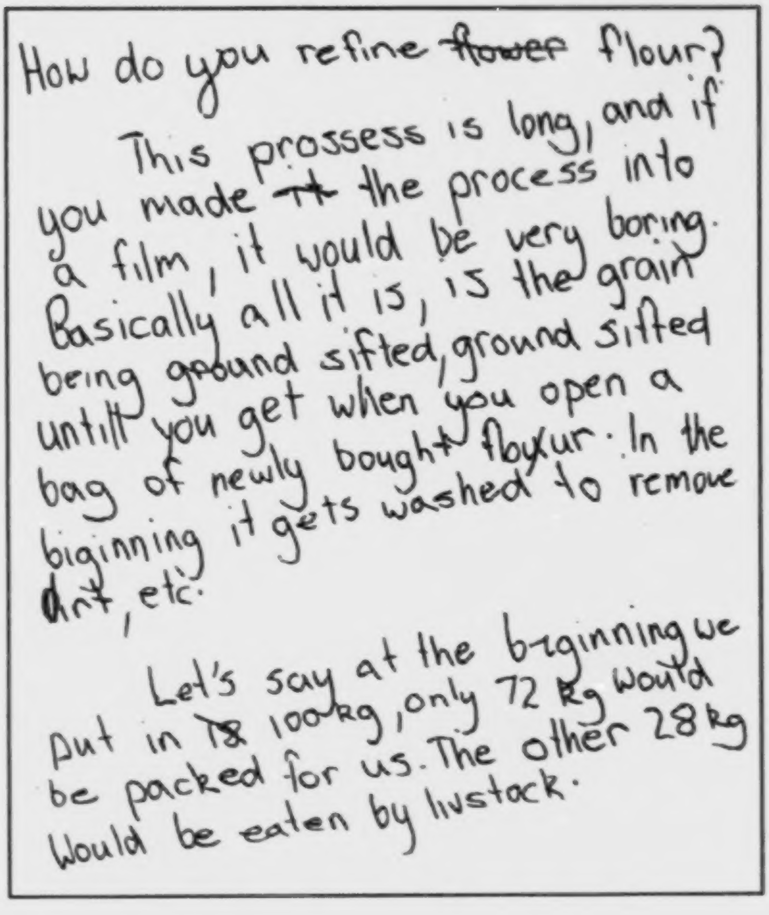
Text 1 below was produced by a beginning Year 7 student. He was asked by his teacher to produce 'half a page about flour'. Without any more detailed guidance, the student, Peter, produced the text which follows.

Read the text.

In what ways is it a successful piece of writing? In what ways is it unsuccessful?

What questions did you have to ask yourself in order to decide whether it was successful or not?

Text 1



How do you refine ~~flower~~ flour?

This prossess is long, and if you made ~~it~~ the process into a film, it would be very boring. Basically all it is, is the grain being ground sifted, ground sifted untill you get when you open a bag of newly bought flo~~x~~ur. In the biginning it gets washed to remove dirt, etc.

Let's say at the biginning we put in ~~78~~ 100kg, only 72 kg would be packed for us. The other 28 kg would be eaten by livstack.

1

1

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Learner Task 2

Workshop Task 2

2

> Before examining the responses to Task 1, try rewriting Peter's text to make it an explanation of how flour is refined, without adding any new information.
>
> How did you approach the task?
>
> What can you say about your language choices and the overall structure?
>
> Can you suggest an alternative instruction for Peter's teacher to give the students?

Commentary

Ways in which the writing is successful

Peter has successfully read between the lines of the teacher's instruction to realise that an explanation of the process of flour production is being asked for. This ability to successfully interpret the task asked of him represents an important achievement.

The title matches most of the content; that is, the main section is about the process of refining flour as the title suggests and not, for example, about the uses of flour. While not a problem here, the mismatch of title and text is a common problem in student writing.

Peter also demonstrates that he is able to understand the encyclopaedia entry he has read and to explain the process using his own words and images. This too, represents an important achievement for Peter. Students need to explore concepts using their own everyday language. However, they need to progress beyond that everyday way of using language so they can express the concepts they have learnt in appropriate technical language.

Peter has sequenced the text appropriately for an explanation, beginning with a title, then an introductory sentence, followed by the steps in the refining process. He concludes with the outcome of the process. With the exception of the sentence which begins *In the beginning,..* which he has placed later in the explanation, Peter has presented the steps in the process in the correct order.

Ways in which the writing is less than successful

As we have already noted, Peter seems to understand what he is writing about. However, his writing is conversational and simplistic; he has chosen to write the way he speaks (a mode choice). What he required to do was to write in a way that was more appropriate to a written task.

He has failed to use impersonal language (tenor) and appropriate technical vocabulary (a field choice).

The teacher realised that Peter needed to rewrite the text but that he was not equipped to do this on his own. The task was far too ambiguous. The students needed clear guidance as to the purpose the writing should achieve. For example, was the teacher expecting a report, a procedure or, as Peter stumbled into, an explanation?

'Write half a page about flour' gives students no clue at all as to what will be valued by the teacher, and worse still, no clue as to where to begin. It is not surprising then, that some students would not even get as far as Peter did in choosing, as it happens, an appropriate genre. The often heard 'I haven't done it, I didn't have time' might well really mean 'I didn't know how to do it'.

The teacher could have given the instruction:

'Write half a page explaining the process of flour refinement'.

This wording of the task would have given the students a much clearer understanding of the task expected of them. However, knowing that they had to explain rather than, say, report, is only half the battle. Students would also need to be supported through a teaching/learning cycle to gain experience of the features of effective explanation writing.

After receiving this first attempt the teacher sat with Peter and talked him step by step through the editing process. He was scaffolded by the teacher in the rewriting of his text. This was done by carefully deconstructing the meanings in his first version and rebuilding the text in a more appropriate way.

Learner Task 3

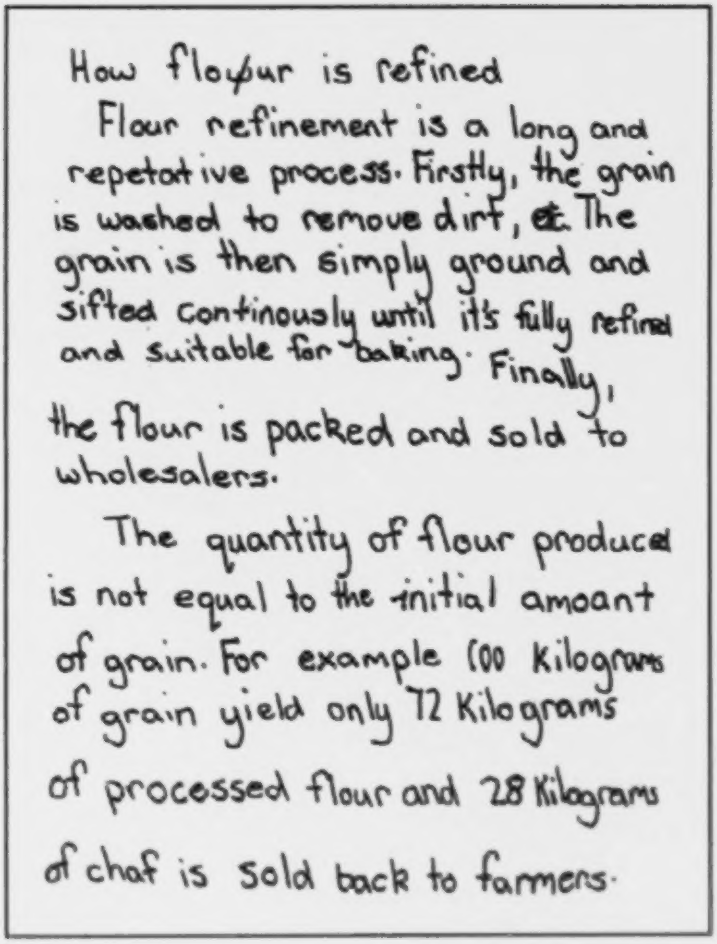
Read through Peter's second version. Identify the language features used to rework the text.

Workshop Task 3

3

2

Text 2



How flo~~u~~ur is refined

Flour refinement is a long and repetative process. Firstly, the grain is washed to remove dirt, etc. The grain is then simply ground and sifted continously until it's fully refined and suitable for baking. Finally, the flour is packed and sold to wholesalers.

The quantity of flour produced is not equal to the initial amoant of grain. For example 100 Kilograms of grain yield only 72 Kilograms of processed flour and 28 Kilograms of chaf is sold back to farmers.

Commentary

Refer back to the Glossary of Language Features for explanation of the language features referred to in this section.

Each sentence from Text 1 and Text 2 is written below with an explanation of the changes. Text 1 is in **bold**; Text 2 is in *italics*.

4 to 4-1

How do you refine flour?

How flour is refined

A statement is a more appropriate title for a scientific explanation. The question format suggests a spoken-like language (mode). The teacher explained this to Peter who understood the concept but was unable to come up with the statement. The teacher then suggested locating the main idea, in this case flour, and moving it to the front of the statement (thematisation). Now Peter was able to come up with the statement.

This process is long, and if you made the process into a film, it would be very boring.

Flour refinement is a long and repetitive process.

Peter's opening sentence has two major problems. First it began with a reference to the process of refining flour ('this process') which he has not yet explained. He has assumed that mentioning the flour refining in the title is sufficient. Students liberally sprinkle texts with reference (eg this, he, its), often confusing the reader because the things being referred to are ambiguous. They mostly refer to words within the text, but at times even refer to information from outside the text. Secondly, Peter has likened the process to an everyday experience field (*a film*) and given a personal opinion about it (tenor – *it would be very boring*), neither of which is appropriate to this genre.

After pointing out these problems the teacher asked Peter what the important word in the sentence was and guided Peter to write a new opening for the sentence (Theme) which was nominalised. This nominalised term was arrived at by the teacher assisting Peter to come up with a term which focused on the process. The teacher asked Peter what he really meant by *boring* and together they came up with *long and repetitive process* (noun group).

In the beginning it gets washed to remove dirt etc.

Firstly, the grain is washed to remove dirt etc.

You will note that in Peter's original version the sentence *In the beginning...* does not occur until later in the text. He chose to describe the second part of the process (*Basically all it is, is...*) first, because he thought it was a general statement, which in fact it is not.

In the beginning is too conversational even though it provides the correct sequence (mode). Peter was unable to come up with an alternative linking word (connective) so the teacher spent time developing a list of time linking words (temporal connectives). This was achieved by starting with the ideas of the order of events *firstly, secondly, thirdly* and then building to more abstract words such as *initially, lastly, finally*, and *eventually*. The list they came up with included:

firstly, initially
secondly, next
thirdly, then
following this, the next thing
lastly/finally, eventually.

The reference word *it* needed to be replaced. The spoken-like word *get* was also replaced by a passive construction which emphasises the impersonal nature of the process.

Basically all it is, is the grain being ground, sifted, ground, sifted, until you get (what you get) when you open up a bag of newly bought flour.

The grain is then simply ground and sifted continuously until it's fully refined and suitable for baking.

The beginning of the sentence (*Basically all it is, is...*) is spoken-like, so Peter was encouraged to come up with a single word *simply* which had the same meaning. He was encouraged again to choose which word should begin the sentence so that the focus is on what the sentence is about (thematisation).

In Peter's original sentence the *ground, sifted* sequence is very spoken-like, being almost incomprehensible without imagining accompanying gestures (mode). Peter suggested adding back in the words that were understood (ellipsed), ie *and then...and then...*, but he was encouraged to find a single word, *continuously*, which had the same meaning.

In the next section of his sentence, Peter's first problem was that he left out part of the sentence, so that it makes no sense — this is a common problem and this kind of rewriting process encourages students to edit their own work. Further, the everyday example Peter used is expressed in a personal way. The teacher needed to remind Peter of the purpose of the text, ie flour refinement, in order to lead Peter to the use of the words *fully refined* and *suitable for baking*.

(No equivalent sentence in Text 1)

……

Finally, the flour is packed and sold to wholesalers.

4-1

Peter had subsumed this last stage in the process in his previous sentence. He has to make each stage of the process explicit and use a suitable connective to make the sequence clear.

Let's say at the beginning, if we put in 100kg of grain only 72kg would be packed for use the other 28kg would be eaten by livestock.

The quantity of flour produced is not equal to the initial amount of grain.

Peter made a leap from the section of the text detailing the sequence of the process to the second stage of the text in which the yield is discussed. The teacher pointed out the way in which the first stage begins with a context-setting sentence (flour refinement) and suggested the same was needed for the second stage. Peter had to think about the overall concept of production (ie yield) and the teacher took the opportunity to formulate a list of technical words Peter would need for this stage of the text *(quantity of flour produced, yield, processed flour, chaff).*

Peter was encouraged to begin the next stage of the text with the main idea and to understand that the sentence should begin with the principal concept.

The teacher took the opportunity, once Peter had come up with *the quantity of flour produced,* to examine the way in which adult writers can pack many ideas together. They looked at the way the noun group is occupying the role of a single noun in a more spoken-like sentence eg:

the flour is

the quantity of flour produced is

This is a powerful writing tool and is a key feature of technical writing. This language feature is called a noun group, ie a group of words functioning as single noun.

The phrase *in the beginning* shows that Peter understood the concepts involved here (ie yield loss), but was unable to express them appropriately. Armed with the concept of tightly packed ideas (noun groups) Peter was able to replace and reposition *in the beginning* as *initial.*

(no equivalent sentence in Text 1)

……

For example, 100 kilograms of grain yields only 72 kilograms of processed flour and 28 kilograms of chaff which is sold back to farmers.

The example in the second version now supports the preceding sentence and so it was suggested that this be made explicit (ie by using *for example*). Peter's previous sentence includes the concept explained in this example. The personal expressions *let's, we put in, for us,* have been deleted, and in their place *grain* becomes the subject of the sentence. In other words, the focus is shifted back onto the refining process itself away from human participants. This new focus encouraged Peter to use the technical term *yields*. In replacing the phrase *would be packed for us,* Peter needed to call on the idea of a noun group to think of the expression *the processed flour*.

The final change was to remove the word that suggested possibility instead of fact, that is, the modal *would*. This is a change in tenor.

By taking the opportunity on a number of occasions, the teacher was able to consolidate Peter's understanding of several commonly used language resources, in particular, thematisation and noun groups.

In this text, placing the key word or phrase at the front of a sentence (thematisation) has been an important writing technique. Throughout the process of rewriting, the teacher guided Peter by asking repeatedly:

> 'So, what's this part really all about?'
> (Peter's response)
> 'So let's start with that'

Packing ideas tightly together by using noun groups was also important in helping Peter to rewrite his text in a much more appropriate way.

It should be remembered that in the process of scaffolding the students through rewriting, teachers need to be conscious of not playing 'guess what word I'm thinking of?'. There may be times when teachers either accept the alternative word the student offers or provide the building block that the student lacks *(initial, yields)*.

The process of rewriting that the teacher and Peter worked through was enhanced by the one-to-one situation in which it arose. However, the teaching/learning cycle provides the opportunity to rework students' texts in the same way during the teacher-led construction step.

Working through each stage of the teaching/learning cycle as a class should minimise the need for one-to-one assistance.

Learner Task 4

Workshop Task 4

5

Peter's main problem was what aspects of flour to write about. The teacher gave no clues by saying 'Write half a page about flour', yet this kind of instruction is common.

Think about one of your classes and set a homework task that requires half a page of writing in which you expect a piece of report writing.

Write the task and an accompanying set of instructions to be given to your students.

Your instructions should have included:

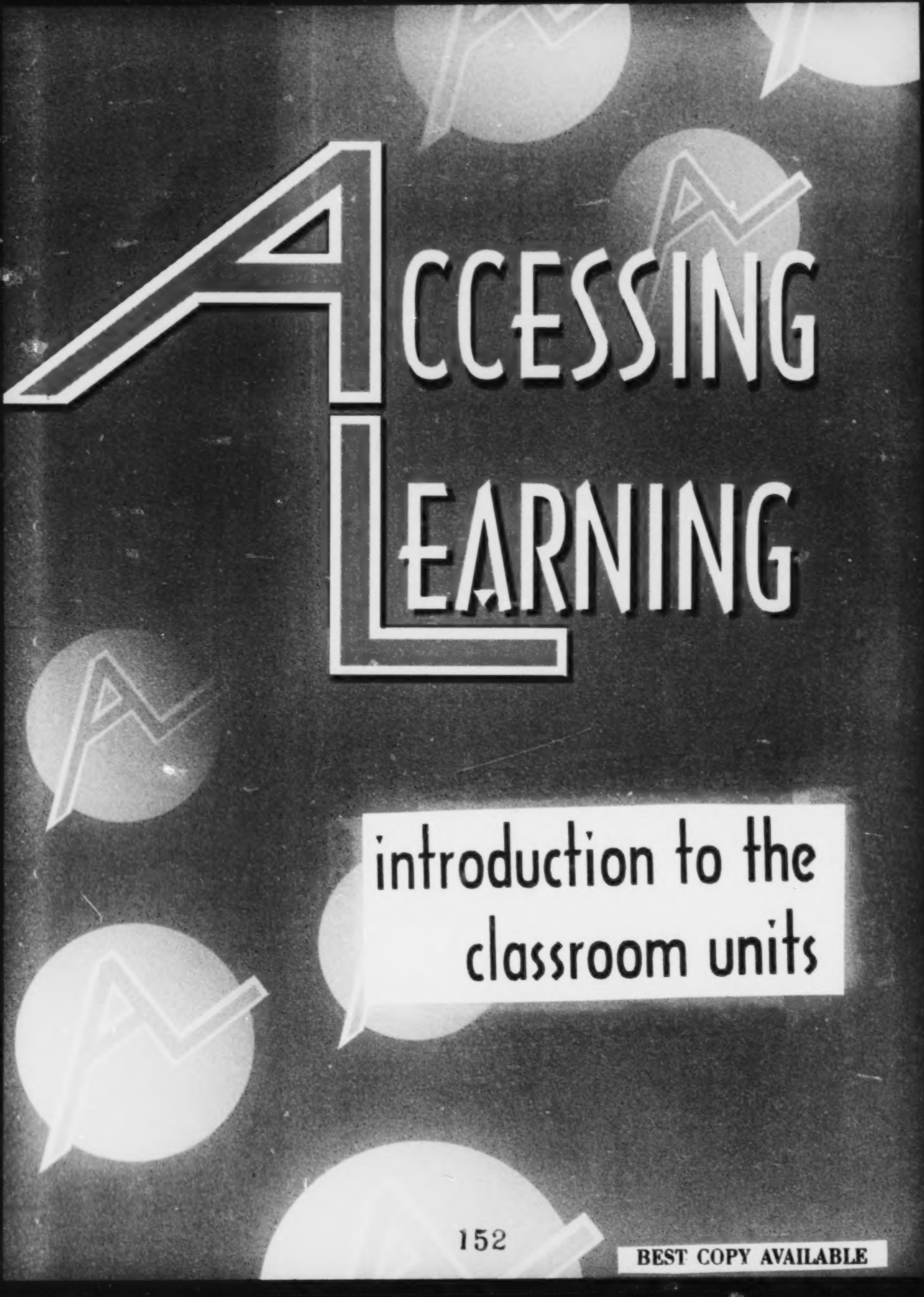
- a clear statement about the genre (ie report) you expect;
- a statement reminding the students about the conventional stages of a report;
- a statement reminding the students about key register choices, eg appropriate technical vocabulary (field), impersonal tone (tenor) and written-like expression (mode).

In other words, students need a clear picture of precisely what the teacher is anticipating and criteria on which the work will be assessed.

INTO PRACTICE

How do you see this approach benefiting your students?

It is suggested that you now progress to the Introduction to the Classroom Units.



ACCESSING LEARNING

introduction to the classroom units

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USING THE CLASSROOM UNITS

Accessing Learning provides Classroom Units which illustrate the integration of a language focus into classroom teaching of content. They follow the pattern of the Teaching/Learning Cycle in Module 1. For each of the five macro-functions there are subject-specific Classroom Units except where subjects typically do not require a particular genre; see Figure 1, Module One.

These Classroom Units have been designed in consultation with classroom teachers to ensure their subject integrity. However, it should be remembered that the principal focus of the course is to demonstrate how to incorporate a language focus into the classroom. Subject teachers as professionals are encouraged to make their own decisions about issues such as:

- pace of presentation;
- additional content;
- extension activities; and
- cultural appropriateness in the context of each teacher's classroom.

The Classroom Units in this course provide you with an example of every genre relevant to your subject area.

In planning your own units of work it may not be appropriate to include every genre. The final writing task in the student-led construction in the units will be determined by the needs of the units themselves, not by artificially imposing genres onto them. However, the genres in these Classroom Units have been sequenced so that they build one upon the other. This reflects the building up from a simple informative report through to more complex argumentative writing. This progression should be kept in mind when planning your own units of work.

Analysing learning activities

In the Introduction to the Teaching/Learning Cycle and Video 1, Part 2: History, the teacher was seen demonstrating the teaching/learning cycle through the teaching of survey writing. You were encouraged to informally deconstruct the lesson as you watched.

In order to fully exploit the Classroom Units it is recommended that deconstruction proformas be completed as you explore the units.

The History teaching/learning cycle you have already seen has been used to model the use of this proforma.

Learner Task 1

Examine the completed proforma on page 44. You may like to watch the video again while familiarising yourself with this method of documenting the content of a teaching/learning cycle.

On completion of a thorough examination of the deconstruction proforma please move on to Task 2.

Workshop Task 1

1 to 1-1

VCR

Learner Task 2

1. Watch Video 2: Design and Technology.

   In the video, Roy teaches a Year 7 class focusing on report writing in the topic Design Considerations.

2. Complete the activity deconstruction proforma, Handout 2 page 46, in conjunction with the video.

Workshop Task 2

2

VCR

For each of the Classroom Units use a blank proforma to help record and determine the purpose of the materials.

To identify embedded cycles it is suggested that you use separate proformas for large embedded cycles (eg surveys), and a different coloured pen for smaller ones (eg definitions). If you are unsure of the operation of the embedded cycle refer to Video 2: Design and Technology.

When you have completed the deconstruction proforma in conjunction with Video 2: Design and Technology, return to this section of the notes and compare your proforma with that following on page 47.

3 to 3-1

Workshop Leaders should have the participants work through the activity before distributing Handout 3 to the group.

Workshop Note

At this stage you should be ready to examine the Classroom Unit for your subject.

Each Classroom Unit is divided into parts that coincide with the macro-functions that are identified for that subject area. For example, Part One for each subject relates to the macro-function *describing*.

The macro-function recounting, however, is not relevant to Geography or Design and Technology and so there is no recounting cycle for these subjects. For clarification refer to Figure 1 on page 5 in the Outline.

As you work through each module of *Accessing Learning* you are directed to the relevant part of the Classroom Units.

Learner Task 3

Workshop Task 3

Now move to examining Part One of the Classroom Unit for your subject.

Each Classroom Unit commences with a Student Outcomes guide and an Overview. It is recommended that these are closely examined before delving into the Classroom Unit.

DECONSTRUCTION

HISTORY CYCLE - SURVEY

SEGMENT OF TEACHING/ LEARNING CYCLE	DESCRIPTION OF ACTIVITY	PURPOSE OF ACTIVITY	ALTERNATIVE OR ADDITIONAL ACTIVITIES
Preparing the Context	Ask students for their definition of a characteristic.	To check student understanding of concept (assessment).	Give definition and ask students to provide word being defined.
	Elicit characteristics.	To determine prior knowledge (assessment). Establish commonsense vocabulary.	Use photograph of a typical Australian to stimulate vocabulary.
	Ask questions about prior experience with surveys.	To determine prior knowledge (assessment). Establish the relationship between surveys and their purpose.	Relate personal experience of filling in survey eg census.
Developing the Context	Using real surveys, ask students to find common features.	To begin to focus on common key features of surveys.	—
Modelling	Put up version of computer survey handed out for re-assembly.	To consider the appropriate order for stages of surveys.	—

HISTORY CYCLE - SURVEY

SEGMENT OF TEACHING/ LEARNING CYCLE	DESCRIPTION OF ACTIVITY	PURPOSE OF ACTIVITY	ALTERNATIVE OR ADDITIONAL ACTIVITIES
	Mark stages on re-ordered version of OHT.	To demonstrate stages of survey.	—
Teacher-led Construction	Using OHT of stages from modelling, elicit survey on 'What it means to be an Australian in the 1990s'.	To assist students to master features of survey writing.	—
	Focus on language feature of instructions.	To assess students' knowledge of survey stages and language features.	—
	Trial survey in the classroom.	To test effectiveness of survey.	—
Student-led Construction	In groups, students construct own survey for use outside the classroom.	To gather information about contemporary perspectives before studying past perspectives.	—

DECONSTRUCTION PROFORMA

SEGMENT OF TEACHING/ LEARNING CYCLE	DESCRIPTION OF ACTIVITY	PURPOSE OF ACTIVITY	ALTERNATIVE OR ADDITIONAL ACTIVITIES

DECONSTRUCTION

DESIGN & TECHNOLOGY CYCLE

SEGMENT OF TEACHING/ LEARNING CYCLE	DESCRIPTION OF ACTIVITY	PURPOSE OF ACTIVITY	ALTERNATIVE OR ADDITIONAL ACTIVITIES
Preparing the Context	Using a concrete example students o consider what they have to think about when writing a design proposal.	To establish the need for considerations in a design proposal.	Use other concrete example or ask students to suggest things that need to be carried and ways they could be carried.
	Eliciting technical vocabulary.	To develop technical vocabulary.	—
Developing the Context	Eliciting properties.	To develop technical vocabulary. Consolidate students' understanding of abstract concepts (assessment).	Provide questions and properties and ask students to match them.
	Reading passage and underlining technical words.	To develop technical vocabulary.	Have students match word and definitions.
	Building a taxonomy.	To provide a visual representation of the interrelationship between terms.	
Preparing the Context	*Explain purpose of definitions.*	*To establish the concept of definitions.*	—
Developing the Context	*Find meaning of technical words in passage.*	*To find meaning of technical words in passage.*	—
Modelling	*Reconstructing definitions.*	*To demonstrate stages of a definition.*	—

DESIGN & TECHNOLOGY CYCLE

SEGMENT OF TEACHING/ LEARNING CYCLE	DESCRIPTION OF ACTIVITY	PURPOSE OF ACTIVITY	ALTERNATIVE OR ADDITIONAL ACTIVITIES
Teacher-led Construction	*Formally construct a definition.*	*To assist students with writing a definition.*	—
Student-led Construction	*Students construct own definition.*	*To assess student ability to write a definition.*	—
Developing the Context (continued)	Eliciting responses on what needs to be carried on a bicycle.	To establish need.	—
Modelling	Deconstruct stages of a report on designing a tackle bag.	To demonstrate stages in a report.	Cut up stages for students to reassemble.
	Circle lexical chains.	To demonstrate lexical links in a passage.	
	Cloze of connectives.	To demonstrate the role of connectives.	
Developing the Context	Eliciting properties for designing a wallet.	To establish the properties needed for designing a wallet.	Provide an extensive list of properties and ask students to decide which ones are appropriate for the Teacher-led Construction.
Teacher-led Construction	Jointly constructing a report using OHT of stages from Modelling.	To show students how to write in an impersonal way.	—
Student-led Construction	Students individually write design proposal.	To gain knowledge of design considerations needed to write a design proposal (formal assessment.)	—

ACCESSING LEARNING

module four

LANGUAGE AND LITERACY DEVELOPMENT IN KEY LEARNING AREAS

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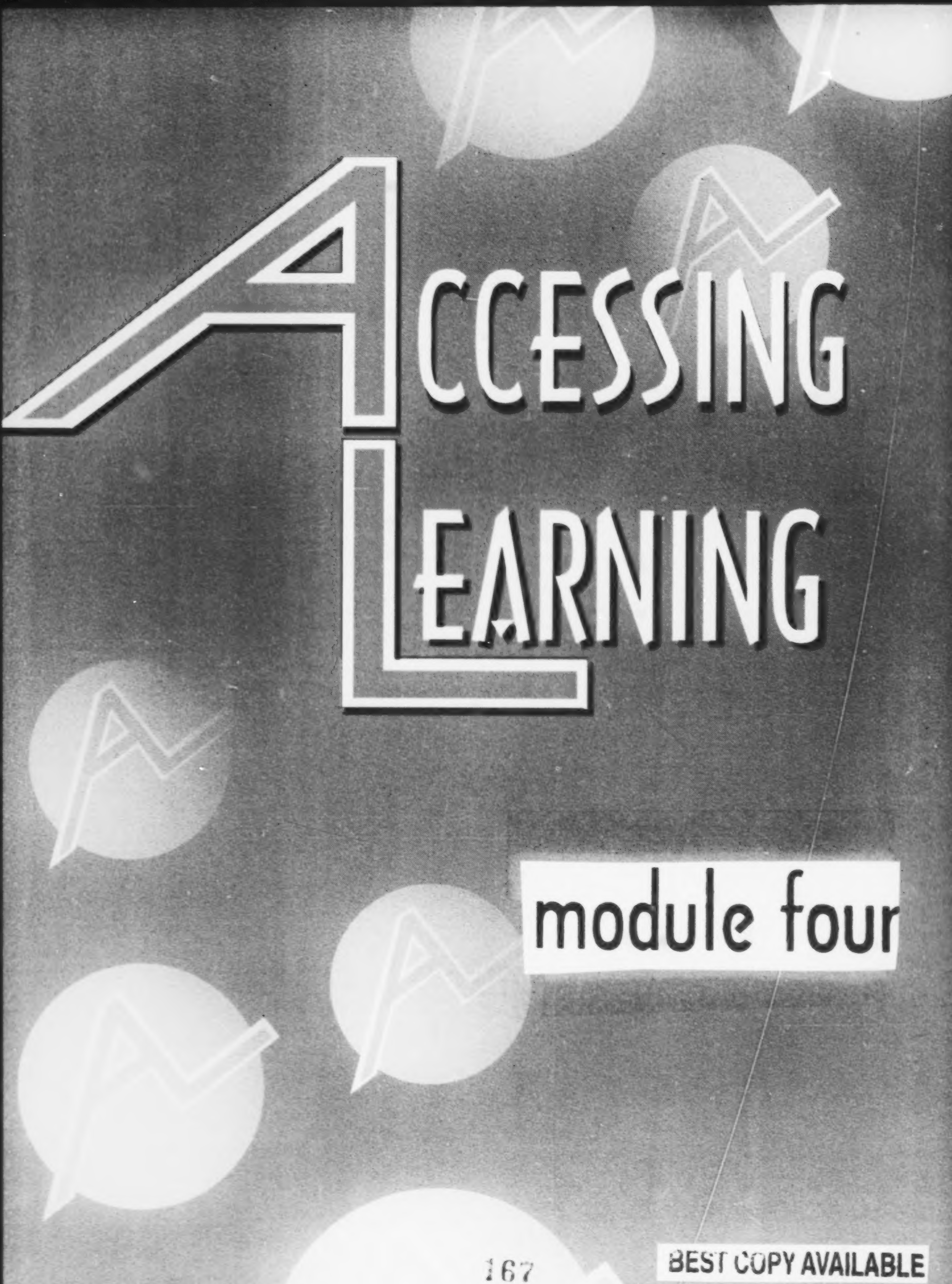

ACCESSING LEARNING

module four

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   Part 2: History - Survey Writing
   Video 2: Design and Technology - Describing

2. Blackline Masters
   Video 3: Geography - Challenging

3. Classroom Units
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   - History
   - Geography
   - Design and Technology

ISBN 1 86382 051 5 (The complete kit)
1 86382 052 3 (The Outline and all Modules)
1 86382 053 1 (The Blackline Masters)

Funded through the Literacy and Learning General Element, Commonwealth Department of Employment, Education and Training.

Printed and published by the Catholic Education Office, P.O. Box 217, Leichhardt NSW 2040.
Phone (02) 569 6111 Fax (02) 550 0052

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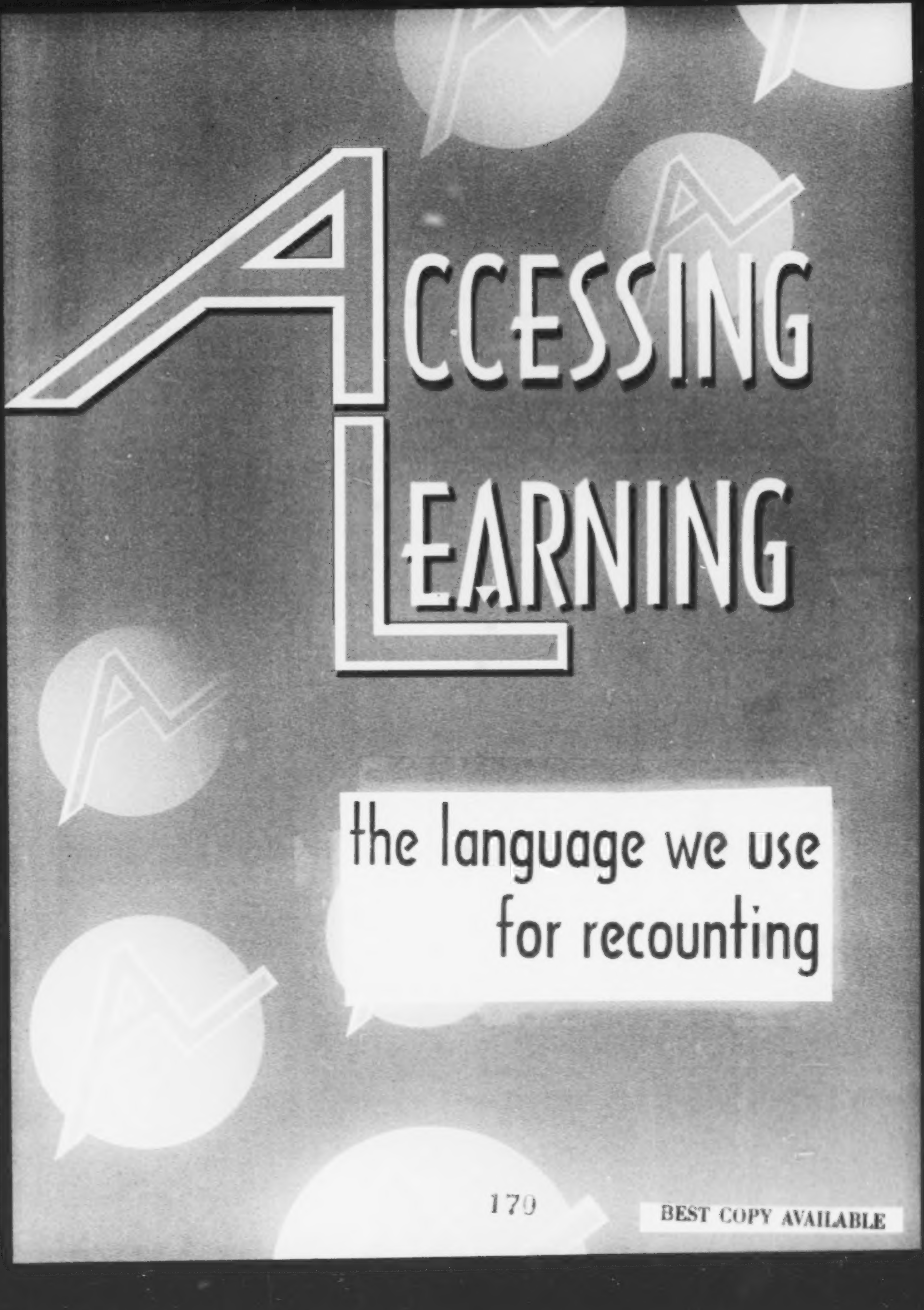

ACCESSING LEARNING

the language we use for recounting

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INTRODUCTION

The language we use for recounting is important to History and Commerce in the Key Learning Area of Human Society and its Environment. We will focus on the genres of narrative and recount, including biography and historical recount. These have evolved as different ways of recounting past events in order to pass on specific information about people, events or things. They provide vicarious experience which elaborates and exemplifies topics within a subject. Recounting is a macro-function central to the social sciences.

These genres are important in History and Commerce, but less likely to occur in the subjects of Technological & Applied Studies or Geography. In the following sections we highlight their characteristic language features to discuss with your students. When students experience difficulty in either reading or writing in a particular genre, you will be able to use this section to help you pinpoint the source of difficulty and address it with a shared understanding and metalanguage.

TEXTS

There are six texts used for working in the four genre sections of this language description. You will find them in two groups at the end, beginning on page 13. First come the original texts, then versions marked 'A' which show division into the genre stages.

List of texts

Text 1: Narrative (History) page 13
Text 2: Recount (Commerce)
Text 3: Biography (Commerce)
Text 4: Biography (History)
Text 5: Historical Recount (History)
Text 6: Historical Recount (Geography)

Text 1A: Narrative (History) Stages page 18
Text 2A: Recount (Commerce) Stages
Text 3A: Biography (Commerce) Stages
Text 4A: Biography (History) Stages
Text 5A: Historical Recount (History) Stages
Text 6A: Historical Recount (Geography) Stages

NARRATIVE

Learner Task 1

Text 1 on page 13 is taken from a secondary History text book. Read it carefully and then consider these questions:

What is the purpose of this narrative? Who would read it and why?

Workshop Task 1

1

1

PURPOSE OF A NARRATIVE

Narrative introduces the reader to a possible world in which individual characters experience a problem of some kind which they have to face and overcome. The basic purpose of narrative is to hold a reader's interest in a story. 'Narrative also seeks to pass on information by embodying the writer's reflections on experience, and — perhaps most importantly — to nourish and extend the reader's imagination.' (Derewianka, 1990: 41). Narratives can be about either an actual or an imaginary happening.

STAGES OF A NARRATIVE

Orientation

Narratives begin with an Orientation, where the reader is introduced to the main characters. These characters are set in time and place, that is, there is usually an indication of **where** and **when** the action is taking place. This stage can be very important for establishing the atmosphere, and there is often some foreshadowing of the action to follow.

Sometimes the Orientation can be quite long. In Text I the Orientation is the first paragraph:

> For many years there were only Aboriginal people living here. They hunted for food and meat for their families. Sometimes they went to the river to spear fish or other creatures…

Complication

The complication follows the Orientation, giving details of a problem, the main point of the story. Often a series of events leads up to the complication or problem. For example, in Text I the Complication stage starts with the beginning of paragraph 2, a series of events:

> One day, the men went down to the river…

then comes the main problem or Complication:

> Then two of the Aboriginals rolled some big rocks down the hill towards the white men. But they saw the rocks coming and hid themselves in a corner. The rocks rolled past them. The Aboriginal men thought that the strange men were killed, but they were hiding behind a big rock. Then the white men saw a black man and fired a gun. The aboriginals ran away and hid themselves again.

Resolution

The Resolution which explains how the Complication was resolved comes next. In Text I, the Resolution is:

> When the white men were finished exploring, they started back for their ship but as they went past, the Aboriginal men began to throw their spears. The strange men ran and dodged so that the spears would not hit them. They jumped on board their boat and sailed away from the land, and they never came back again. When they were sailing away, the Aboriginal men were standing on the sand watching them.

Coda

The Coda (which in Text I is the last sentence) provides a comment on or summary statement of the events described in the narrative. It fulfils the function of bringing the text to a close eg 'they all lived happily ever after or 'the moral of the story is…'

In Text 1, the Coda is:

> After they disappeared, the men did a wild dance until it was dark.

Summary of stages

The generic structure or stages of a narrative can be summarised as Orientation followed by Complication followed by Resolution followed by Coda. This is represented simply as:

Orientation ^ Complication ^ Resolution ^ (Coda)

^ indicates 'is followed by'.
() indicates 'is optional'.

2

2

Coordinator directs participants to Handouts 1 and 2 and reviews structure

Commentary

The purpose of this Text 1 narrative is to tell an imaginary story as though it were an historical narrative, which, by building up to a climax, creates an evocative picture of the historical period it is representing. In this way it gives a picture of past events and passes on historical information in a way which is entertaining and interesting.

LANGUAGE FEATURES

Learner Task 2

Workshop Task 2

3

Re-read the previous text, then consider these questions:

1. Does the text give us **general** information about people/things/events or does it discuss **particular** people/things/events (participants)?
2. Are there expression of attitude or feelings? If so, note a few examples.
3. Narratives relate a sequence of events around a problem, and the events are sequenced in time. How is this done in Text 1? Write down some of the words that are to do with time.

Commentary

1. The movement is from general *(Aboriginal people)* to specific *(one of the Aboriginal men, they, strange men, he).* This movement from generalised language to specific events/people is common in History.
2. Yes. In contrast to report, expressions of attitude and feeling are appropriate in narratives and recounts. Examples in the passage are *frightened, strange men, hid themselves in a corner, ran and dodged*, and *wild dance*.
3. Events in the passage are sequenced through time words (temporal connectives), eg *For many years, one day, then, when* and *as*.

Summary of language features

4

3

Narratives have these language features:

- Specific, individualised people/things/events (participants), mainly human.
- Linking words to do with time (temporal connectives), eg *then, when* and *after*.
- Inclusion of relevant information that locates the text in time or place etc, eg *to the top of the hill; down the hill.*
- Constant use of past tense, eg *came, hid, stayed.*
- Descriptive/attitudinal word choices to enhance the story, eg *wild* dance, *strange* men, *frightened.*
- Mainly action verbs, eg *were standing, went*, and *came*. In many narratives (although not in Text 1) verbs referring to what the participant said, felt or thought (verbal and mental) are also used.

- Interesting and varied use of first position in the sentence (Theme), eg *for many years*; *the rocks*, *then the strange men*, and *after they disappeared.*
- Use of specific reference, eg *Aborigines* and *themselves*.

Learner Task 3

Workshop Task 3

5

1. Return to Text 1 and circle the linking words to do with time (temporal connectives) in the first two paragraphs.

   Are they referring to general or specific time?

   What does this tell us about the difference between the orientation and the rest of the narrative?
2. Underline the action verbs in the last paragraph.

   What role do action verbs serve?
3. Box the Theme of each sentence in the first two paragraphs.

   What pattern emerges?

   What kind of language is used?

   Refer to the Glossary of Language Features for explanations of the language features referred to in this task.

Commentary

1. The function of the Orientation is to set the scene. Here the temporal connectives *for many years* and *sometimes* set the time in the general past as the way things were before the story began. By contrast, the next stage of the text (the Complication) presents the events of the story reflected by the use of the specific temporal connectives *one day* and *as*.

   In writing, students often fail to understand the importance of talking about the past in these two different ways. They often omit the important scene-setting stage of a narrative which is characterised by the use of generalised participants and reference to time. These features need to be highlighted with students during deconstruction of a model so that they can be equipped to recognise and use this general way of expressing past time.

2. Action verbs are concerned with actions in the real world, so they serve to move the action in the text along through time. We know that events in the real world happen one after the other, which allows a mature writer to imply the sequence of events using little explicit time reference.

   In this text we find minimal use of temporal connectives, which is typical of this kind of retelling of events with action verbs.

   Students often feel the need to recount events punctuated with *and then... and then* … Pointing out how the action is carried along in logical sequence without much explicit time reference helps students to improve their writing and to recognise that one event follows another as they read. See Resource Sheet over.

RESOURCE SHEET: TASK 3

⬭ = temporal activities ▭ = action verbs

underline = Theme

4

This story is the work of an Aboriginal child,
Stanley Jangala Gallacher.

AWAMRIGURR — THE STRANGERS

Orientation

For many years there were only Aboriginal people living here. They hunted for food and meat for their families. Sometimes they went to the river to spear fish or other creatures ...

Complication

One day the men went down to the river to spear the fish. As they came near the river, they saw a boat with some strange men in it. The Aboriginal men were frightened so they hid themselves in the bush, waiting for the boat to come. They were standing on the sand talking and they went into the bush.

One of the Aboriginal men went to the top of a hill and stayed there watching the white men come closer and closer. He told his men that the strange men were coming, and one by one they took their spears to the very top of the hill. Then two of the Aboriginals rolled some big rocks down the hill towards the white men. But they saw the rocks coming and hid themselves in a corner. The rocks rolled past them. The Aboriginal men thought that the strange men were killed, but they were hiding behind a big rock. Then the white men saw a black man and fired a gun. The aboriginals ran away and hid themselves again.

Resolution

When the white men were finished exploring, they started back for their ship but as they went past, the Aboriginal men began to throw their spears. The strange men ran and dodged so that the spears would not hit them. They jumped on board their boat and sailed away from the land, and they never came back again. When they were sailing away, the Aboriginal men were standing on the sand watching them.

Coda

After they disappeared, the men did a wild dance until it was dark.

Land of the Southern Cross,
M. Bowering, L. Kerr, L. Soper

RECOUNT

Learner Task 4

> The recount Text 2 is taken from a secondary school Commerce textbook. Read it carefully and then consider the following:
>
> What is the purpose of this recount?
>
> Who would read it and why?

Workshop Task 4

6

5

PURPOSE OF A RECOUNT

Recounts retell events in chronological order. They differ from narrative in that the purpose of narratives is to relate an interesting story which contains a complication followed by a resolution of some kind.

The purpose of recount differs from narrative in that there is no use of a complication and resolution to introduce an element of interest.

Recounts may be factual or imaginative and may retell specific events (recount), lives of people (biographies) or some generalised historical event (historical recount).

All recounts have the same staging: it is in the participants that a distinction lies.

Text 2 is a recount of an imaginary event, that is, how Jenny and John set up a business.

STAGES OF A RECOUNT

Orientation

Recounts begin with an Orientation, where the reader is given information on who, when, where, and what — setting the scene.

> The Christmas holidays had left Jenny and John short of pocket money ... They would start a business.

Events

The Events follow the Orientation and are sequenced in time. In other words, they are ordered in a chronological sequence. In Text 2 the chronological sequence is sometimes implicit, that is, there are few linking words (temporal connectives) or phrases.

Re-orientation

This is an optional element — it adds some personal comment on the incident. For example, in Text 2, *They were now ready for business,* rounds off the text with a comment by the writer.

Summary of stages

The generic structure or staging of a recount can be stated as Orientation followed by Events.

It can be represented as:

Orientation ^ Events ^ (Re-orientation)

Learner Task 5 Check your response with Text 2A, on page 19.

Now you have information on the purpose and stages of recounts, go back to Text 2 and consider your response to the following:

1. How would you divide the text into stages?
2. Label each stage.

Workshop Task 5

7

6

The second question should be covered until the Coordinator is ready to continue.

LANGUAGE FEATURES

Learner Task 6

Re-read Text 2 and consider these questions.

1. Does the text give us **general** information about people/things/events (participants) or does it discuss **particular** participants?
2. Are there expressions of attitude or feelings? If so, note a few examples.
3. Recounts focus on events ordered in a chronological sequence. How is this done in Text 2?

Workshop Task 6

8

Commentary

1. The text discusses particular participants. The Themes are mainly to do with *John* and *Jenny* and *their parents*.

2. Recounts in Commerce do not usually contain overt expressions of attitude or feelings.

3. The ordering is done by temporal connectives *(after, first thing, soon)* as well as being implied, as in the narrative Text 1.

Summary of language features

- As with narratives, recounts focus on individual or specific people, things and events (participants), eg *Jenny, pocket money*, and *school*. This is different from reports, where the focus is on general (generic) participants or groups of things, eg 'chisels', 'mountains'.
- Linking words to do with time (temporal connectives), eg *after, the first thing*, and *soon*.
- Inclusion of relevant circumstantial information that locates the text in time or place, eg *to the local nursery* and *on the pots*.
- Past tense *(decided, obtained)* as the function of recounts is to retell what happened.
- Descriptive, attitudinal word choices, eg *keen, attractive* and *brighter*.
- Mainly action verbs *(painted, advertised*, but some relational verbs, eg *were, had*.
- Use of specific reference, eg *John, Jenny*, and *their parents*.

9

7

Coordinator to point out that this information applies to narratives as well as recounts.

BIOGRAPHY AND HISTORICAL RECOUNT

In this section we look at examples of other recounts: biography, which retells the lives of people, and historical recount, which generalised historical events.

PURPOSE AND STAGES

Biographies retell a particular person's life highlighting those events that are deemed to be significant. The purpose of a biography is therefore very similar to a recount, so they share the same generic stages and are similar to narratives in that they relate a story. The difference is that a biography is the retelling of one person's life. A biography unfolds with a series of events that are usually sequenced chronologically.

As seen earlier, recount texts typically involve **specific** participants (eg *Jenny* and *John*) and present a series of events sequenced in time. However an author may choose to recount selected events involving **generalised** participants (eg *the Romans* or *bushrangers*), setting the story in a particular period in the past. This kind of text is called an historical recount.

A distinction is drawn between a recount and an historical recount because of the very different **purposes** they serve. As we saw earlier, the purpose of a recount is simply to retell a sequence of events. However, by choosing a more generalised level of recounting, the author of an historical recount is able to explain the **significance** of events. The primary purpose of historical recount is to retell events from the perspective of collective experience. Events are retold, not from an individual point of view but from a distanced and general viewpoint. The focus is on retelling how the event came about.

Learner Task 7
The answers to questions 1 and 2 of Task 7 are indicated on the A versions of the texts. Please see page 20.

Texts 3 – 6 are biographies and historical recounts. Select one biography and one historical recount and examine their staging and language features:

1. How would you divide the text into stages?
2. Label each stage.
3. Examine the use of human participants in a biography and in an historical recount. How does it differ?
4. Underline any words or groups of words that indicate time. If they are not actual times or dates such as *5 May, April 1917*, replace the phrase with a date, eg *a century earlier* becomes '17th century'.

Workshop Task 7

10

8 - 8-3

9 - 9-4

Commentary

The significant difference between biographical and historical recounts (Q.3) lies in the use of specific participants in biographies (eg *Dick Smith)* and generalised participants in historical recounts (eg *Anzacs)*. While writing about specific participants comes easily to students, they need support in the use of generalised participants to make their writing more abstract.

Students often misunderstand or even ignore time reference that is not actually stated as a date (Q.4). Practice in correctly interpreting this kind of time reference encourages accurate reading of a text and expands the repertoire available to students in their writing.

CONCLUSION

The language features of narrative and recount are similar because they have similar purposes: to recount past events in order to interest, entertain or pass on information. Recounting is a macro-function intrinsic to many subjects. The focus here has been on the use of the genres in History and Commerce.

There are Classroom Units in recounting for the subjects History and Commerce.

It is recommended that you complete the Teaching/Learning Activity: Jigsaw and then examine the Classroom Units.

TEXT 1: NARRATIVE (HISTORY)

1

This story is the work of an Aboriginal child,
Stanley Jangala Gallacher.

AWAMRIGURR — THE STRANGERS

For many years there were only Aboriginal people living here. They hunted for food and meat for their families. Sometimes they went to the river to spear fish or other creatures ...

One day, the men went down to the river to spear the fish. As they came near the river, they saw a boat with some strange men in it. The Aboriginal men were frightened so they hid themselves in the bush, waiting for the boat to come. They were standing on the sand talking and they went into the bush.

One of the Aboriginal men went to the top of a hill and stayed there watching the white men come closer and closer. He told his men that the strange men were coming, and one by one they took their spears to the very top of the hill. Then two of the Aboriginals rolled some big rocks down the hill towards the white men. But they saw the rocks coming and hid themselves in a corner. The rocks rolled past them. The Aboriginal men thought that the strange men were killed, but they were hiding behind a big rock. Then the white men saw a black man and fired a gun. The aboriginals ran away and hid themselves again.

When the white men were finished exploring, they started back for their ship but as they went past, the Aboriginal men began to throw their spears. The strange men ran and dodged so that the spears would not hit them. They jumped on board their boat and sailed away from the land, and they never came back again. When they were sailing away, the Aboriginal men were standing on the sand watching them.

After they disappeared, the men did a wild dance until it was dark.

Land of the Southern Cross,
M. Bowering, L. Kerr, L. Soper

TEXT 2: RECOUNT (COMMERCE)

5

The Christmas holidays had left Jenny and John short of pocket money so they sat down after their first day at school to consider ways by which they could obtain more money. After some discussion they made a decision. They would start a business.

They had learned that businesses are basically involved in buying and selling goods or services for a profit. The first thing they had to decide was what they were going to sell. Since their parents were keen gardeners they decided to go into business selling pot plants. From their parents they obtained some cuttings of shrubs which would grow easily in small pots. Their parents had a supply of pots from previous visits to the local nursery. Jenny and John also visited the nursery which sold them a supply of pot plants at a reduced price. They pooled all of their remaining pocket money to purchase these plants. Soon they had a sizeable stock of plants to sell. To make them more attractive to the customers they painted the pots brighter colours and printed the names of the shrubs on the pots.

To advertise their pot plants they put a blackboard sign up on their front lawn with details of the various plants and their prices. They also spread the word among their mates at school and in the area around their home. They were now ready for business.

1. What did Jenny and John know about business?
2. What was the first decision they had to make in starting off a business?
3. How did they obtain their stock of goods to sell?
4. How do you think they worked out the prices of the pot plants they were going to sell?
5. What do you think might have happened if they had tried to sell their plants at very high prices?
6. How can you tell that their business was successful?
7. What factors made Jenny and John's business successful?
8. Why do you think the nursery gave them a bigger discount when they went to buy more supplies?
9. What might they have done had they not been successful at selling the first lot of pot plants?
10. Write a similar brief story of two other young people who go into business selling something. This time, however, assume that their business was not successful.

Commerce Two,
B. Parker, T. Clarke, P. Carter

TEXT 3: BIOGRAPHY (COMMERCE)

8 to 8-5

The man who didn't really mean to get rich

BY ANABEL DEAN

Dick Smith doesn't like being called a millionaire. He claims he's not interested in making money and didn't set out 'to become a capitalist employing hundreds of people'.

He'd rather be thought of as a plain businessman or an adventurer.

But his life has been far from ordinary. He does things in a dramatic way — whether it's towing an iceberg into Sydney Harbour, jumping a double-decker bus over 17 motorbikes or flying solo around the world in a helicopter.

By the time he was 37 his enthusiasm for adventure and publicity made him the electronics retailing name (and face) on many a shopping list, with an empire of over 50 shops and a gross turnover of $50 million. Success was simply copied from others, he says.

'Everything I've done in my life has had very little originality. I've never had any problems in asking people how they do things', he says.

Coming from a middle class family 'with no money at all', Smith's early life at school was a deceptive failure. His poor academic record and a speech impediment (forcing him to call himself Dick Miff or Dick Fish) created a severe inferiority complex. Having repeated sixth class, he got a job at 15 as a radio apprentice 'after just scraping through the Intermediate Certificate'.

Three months on a radio factory process line operating a hand press was enough to send him back to the North Sydney Technical College to sit for the Leaving Certificate.

In 1962 he sat through one lecture in electrical engineering at Sydney University, then went back to tech to study electronics and communication — 'then I realised there was no hope of getting through that either and thought, well I'm just a dummy'.

His salvation was his love of radio. At the age of eight he built his first crystal set and by 15 was earning pocket money fixing the neighbours' appliances. At 17 he got his amateur radio licence, 'the only qualification I've got, if you can call a ham radio licence anything', he says.

He began fixing cab radios for Weston Electronics at Castle Cove and thought 'well that's no problem, for the rest of my life I'm going to fix taxi cab radios'. Six years later, in 1968, Smith had saved $600.

His business life began by accident when Weston Electronics stopped servicing the Manly cab radio service. At 22 he opened a shop selling and fixing radios at the Big Bear car park in Neutral Bay (later moving to Gore Hill), with $10 of his fiancee's money and his own $600. He paid $15 a week for rent, giving himself a $40-a-week wage and the sole employee $60.

'I opened the business not to make money but because no one was going to service Manly cab radios, which is crazy. When I look back on it', he says, 'I started for all the wrong reasons'.

With no money for advertising, he attached a Masonite sign to the roof of his $40 car and, unperturbed by daily police requests to remove the illegally parked vehicle, placed his advertisement either near the Spit Bridge or Roseville Bridge.

'I didn't have enough money for a signwriter to do the sign, so I bought boat registrations stickers and stuck them to the sign. That was my entire advertising budget', he says. 'And the business boomed. I worked my guts out seven days a week and my wife Pip, who was only 17, worked on weekends. People say 'you must have taken great risks', but I didn't because I didn't have any money. No one would give me any credit, everyone had gone broke in electronics and everyone had gone broke at Big Bear', he said.

'I'd race out and buy a car radio for cash, bring it in and sell it in an afternoon, and then with that money go and buy another one.'

cont.

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Text 3 continued

On the morning of the first sale, customers were scarce. 'I opened the doors of the business at nine, but by 9.30 we didn't have any customers — so I hitch-hiked to all the car dealers to see if I could get a customer. When I got back, my employee had sold an aerial for $6. He was so excited because he said we'd made $3, I said no we'd lost $2 because I hadn't price-marked it and we could have sold it for $8.

'From that second on with Dick Smith Electronics, everything was price-marked until it got to a $50 million turnover and I sold it to Woolworths', he said. 'I had nothing to lose and everything to gain.

Today the electronics entrepreneur, aged 41, earns his living from the rent on industrial buildings in Ryde. All connections with Dick Smith Electronics were severed because there are 'other things to do in life and I don't have a long attention span', he says.

'I get satisfaction by having a Commodore and giving to charity the money which could have been used for a Rolls Royce. But anything I've done is purely for self-satisfaction.'

That includes the launching of a quarterly magazine *Australian Geographic*.

Commerce Two,
B. Parker, T. Clarke, P. Carter

TEXT 4: BIOGRAPHY (HISTORY)

CAPTAIN JAMES COOK

James Cook, perhaps the greatest of all English explorers, was born into a poor farming family in Yorkshire in 1728. When James was still young his father was made a farm manager and the family became a bit more prosperous. James had a little education before he started work, first with a grocer and then with a shipowner. His second employer helped him to study further, but at the age of twenty-six, James Cook made the biggest decision of his life — to join the British Navy.

Not many people are willing to go backwards in life but James Cook did. The shipowner had just offered him a chance to be in charge of a ship. Instead he became an ordinary sailor on low pay. Why? He loved the sea and he felt that because England was at war with France, he could become an officer quickly.

His gamble paid off. On his first ship he met a captain who appreciated his abilities and helped him. Within a month he was promoted. In the next ten years he made many trips to North America. He became famous for his maps of the coast and rivers and was soon well known as an excellent leader and navigator.

When Cook was forty years old, the British Navy chose him for an unusual job. He was given command of an ugly, flat-bottomed ship called the *Endeavour*.

Both captain and ship were chosen for their experience and reliability. The *Endeavour* made one trip but James Cook completed three more trips before he was killed in Hawaii.

Land of the Southern Cross,
M. Bowering, L. Kerr, L. Soper.

186

TEXT 5: HISTORICAL RECOUNT (HISTORY)

The European battlefront was a very different affair from the situation in the Middle East. Early in April 1917, the 1st Anzac Corps was transported to that part of northern France known as Flanders. Here they took over a section of the front, south-east of Armentiers, facing the powerful, well-trained German army. Both sides were locked together in an endless array of trenches padded with sandbags and protected by thick belts of barbed wire. The Australians were issued with British steel helmets and gas masks, for the Germans were using poisonous gas in their attacks. The first months were fairly quiet. The intermittent artillery and sniper fire contrasted favourably with the terrible conditions of Gallipoli. The troops enjoyed better rations, patrolled 'No Man's Land' (the area between opposing trenches) freely and watched aerial dog-fights for amusement.

Gradually, the raids on both sides increased and the troops came to appreciate their helmets and gas masks. The enemy raided first on 5 May and a month later an Australian raiding party, all volunteers, retaliated and succeeded in taking prisoners. More raids followed but they were nothing compared to the battle that was to come in July. On the first of that month, the British launched their tragically famous offensive on the Somme. The battle of the Somme was to became a series of battles against the Germans in northern France, lasting several months.

For Australia's Sake,
M. Simmelhaig and G. Spenceley

TEXT 6: HISTORICAL RECOUNT (GEOGRAPHY)

European contact with Papua New Guinea

Between 1528 and 1874, navigators came to know and map the coast. It was another seventy years before foreigners discovered the fertile and well-populated highland valleys.

Colonisation
In 1828 Holland took the west half of the island. In 1884 Britain took the south-east and Germany the north-east. After World War I Australia governed all the eastern half.

The Kiaps were patrol officers whose duties included preventing the supply of firearms, drugs, and alcohol to native people.

After World War II, Australia increased investments of money and people in PNG, its only colony.

Independence, 1975
By 1962, partly as a response to UN pressure for decolonisation, Australia began preparing the country for independence. For example, a few people were given opportunities for tertiary education.

In 1975 PNG became an independent nation. Australia still lends large amounts of money to PNG. Many businesses and public servants are Australian.

Learning to Look Through a Geographer's Eyes Book 2,
N. Gallagher, J. Oliver & I. Wilson

TEXT 1A: NARRATIVE (HISTORY) STAGES

2

This story is the work of an Aboriginal child.
Stanley Jangala Gallacher.

AWAMRIGURR — THE STRANGERS

Orientation	For many years there were only Aboriginal people living here. They hunted for food and meat for their families. Sometimes they went to the river to spear fish or other creatures ...
Complication	One day, the men went down to the river to spear the fish. As they came near the river, they saw a boat with some strange men in it. The Aboriginal men were frightened so they hid themselves in the bush, waiting for the boat to come. They were standing on the sand talking and they went into the bush. One of the Aboriginal men went to the top of a hill and stayed there watching the white men come closer and closer. He told his men that the strange men were coming, and one by one they took their spears to the very top of the hill. Then two of the Aboriginals rolled some big rocks down the hill towards the white men. But they saw the rocks coming and hid themselves in a corner. The rocks rolled past them. The Aboriginal men thought that the strange men were killed, but they were hiding behind a big rock. Then the white men saw a black man and fired a gun. The aboriginals ran away and hid themselves again.
Resolution	When the white men were finished exploring, they started back for their ship but as they went past, the Aboriginal men began to throw their spears. The strange men ran and dodged so that the spears would not hit them. They jumped on board their boat and sailed away from the land, and they never came back again. When they were sailing away, the Aboriginal men standing were on the sand watching them.
Coda	After they disappeared, the men did a wild dance until it was dark.

Land of the Southern Cross,
M. Bowering, L. Kerr, L. Soper

TEXT 2A: RECOUNT (COMMERCE) STAGES

6

Orientation

The Christmas holidays had left Jenny and John short of pocket money so they sat down after their first day at school to consider ways by which they could obtain more money. After some discussion they made a decision. They would start a business.

Events

They had learned that businesses are basically involved in buying and selling goods or services for a profit. The first thing they had to decide was what they were going to sell. Since their parents were keen gardeners they decided to go into business selling pot plants. From their parents they obtained some cuttings of shrubs which would grow easily in small pots. Their parents had a supply of pots from previous visits to the local nursery. Jenny and John also visited the nursery which sold them a supply of pot plants at a reduced price. They pooled all of their remaining pocket money to purchase these plants. Soon they had a sizeable stock of plants to sell. To make them more attractive to the customers they painted the pots brighter colours and printed the names of the shrubs on the pots.

To advertise their pot plants they put a blackboard sign up on their front lawn with details of the various plants and their prices. They also spread the word among their mates at school and in the area around their home. They were now ready for business.

1. What did Jenny and John know about business?
2. What was the first decision they had to make in starting off a business?
3. How did they obtain their stock of goods to sell?
4. How do you think they worked out the prices of the pot plants they were going to sell?
5. What do you think might have happened if they had tried to sell their plants at very high prices?
6. How can you tell that their business was successful?
7. What factors made Jenny and John's business successful?
8. Why do you think the nursery gave them a bigger discount when they went to buy more supplies?
9. What might they have done had they not been successful at selling the first lot of pot plants?
10. Write a similar brief story of two other young people who go into business selling something. This time, however, assume that their business was not successful?

Commerce Two,
B. Parker, T. Clarke, P. Carter

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TEXT 3A: BIOGRAPHY (COMMERCE) STAGES

9 to 9-4

The man who didn't really mean to get rich

BY ANABEL DEAN

Orientation

Dick Smith doesn't like being called a millionaire. He claims he's not interested in making money and didn't set out 'to become a capitalist employing hundreds of people'.

He'd rather be thought of as a plain businessman or an adventurer.

But his life has been far from ordinary. He does things in a dramatic way — whether it's towing an iceberg into Sydney Harbour, jumping a double-decker bus over 17 motorbikes or flying solo around the world in a helicopter.

Events

By the time he was 37 his enthusiasm for adventure and publicity made him the electronics retailing name (and face) on many a shopping list, with an empire of over 50 shops and a gross turnover of $50 million. Success was simply copied from others, he says.

'Everything I've done in my life has had very little originality. I've never had any problems in asking people how they do things', he says.

Coming from a middle class family 'with no money at all', Smith's early life at school was a deceptive failure. His poor academic record and a speech impediment (forcing him to call himself Dick Miff or Dick Fish) created a severe inferiority complex.

Having repeated sixth class, he got a job at 15 as a radio apprentice 'after just scraping through the Intermediate Certificate'.

Three months on a radio factory process line operating a hand press was enough to send him back to the North Sydney Technical College to sit for the Leaving Certificate.

In 1962 he sat through one lecture in electrical engineering at Sydney University, then went back to tech to study electronics and communication — 'then I realised there was no hope of getting through that either and thought, well I'm just a dummy'.

His salvation was his love of radio. At the age of eight he build his first crystal set and by 15 was earning pocket money fixing the neighbours' appliances. At 17 he got his amateur radio licence, 'the only qualification I've got, if you can call a ham radio licence anything', he says.

He began fixing cab radios for Weston Electronics at Castle Cove and thought 'well that's no problem, for the rest of my life I'm going to fix taxi cab radios'. Six years later, in 1968, Smith had saved $600.

cont.

Text 3A continued

His business life began by accident when Weston Electronics stopped servicing the Manly cab radio service. At 22 he opened a shop selling and fixing radios at the Big Bear car park in Neutral Bay (later moving to Gore Hill), with $10 of his fiancee's money and his own $600. He paid $15 a week for rent, giving himself a $40-a-week wage and the sole employee $60.

'I opened the business not to make money but because no one was going to service Manly cab radios, which is crazy. When I look back on it', he says, 'I started for all the wrong reasons'.

With no money for advertising, he attached a Masonite sign to the roof of his $40 car and, unperturbed by daily police requests to remove the illegally parked vehicle, placed his advertisement either near the Spit Bridge or Roseville Bridge.

Events Continued

'I didn't have enough money for a signwriter to do the sign, so I bought boat registrations stickers and stuck them to the sign. That was my entire advertising budget', he says.

'And the business boomed. I worked my guts out seven days a week and my wife Pip, who was only 17, worked on weekends. People say 'you must have taken great risks', but I didn't because I didn't have any money. No one would give me any credit, everyone had gone broke in electronics and everyone had gone broke at Big Bear', he said.

'I'd race out and buy a car radio for cash, bring it in and sell it in an afternoon, and then with that money go and buy another one.'

Events Continued

On the morning of the first sale, customers were scarce. 'I opened the doors of the business at nine, but by 9.30 we didn't have any customers — so I hitch-hiked to all the car dealers to see if I could get a customer. When I got back, my employee had sold an aerial for $6. He was so excited because he said we'd made $3, I said no we'd lost $2 because I hadn't price-marked it and we could have sold it for $8.

'From that second on with Dick Smith Electronics, everything was price-marked until it got to a $50 million turnover and I sold it to Woolworths', he said. 'I had nothing to lose and everything to gain.'

Re-orientation

Today the electronics entrepreneur, aged 41, earns his living from the rent on industrial buildings in Ryde. All connections with Dick Smith Electronics were severed because there are 'other things to do in life and I don't have a long attention span', he says.

'I get satisfaction by having a Commodore and giving to charity the money which could have been used for a Rolls Royce. But anything I've done is purely for self-satisfaction.'

That includes the launching of a quarterly magazine *Australian Geographic*.

Commerce Two,
B. Parker, T. Clarke, P. Carter

TEXT 4A: BIOGRAPHY (HISTORY) STAGES

Captain James Cook

Orientation

James Cook, perhaps the greatest of all English explorers, was born into a poor farming family in Yorkshire in 1728.

Events

When James was still young his father was made a farm manager and the family became a bit more prosperous. James had a little education before he started work, first with a grocer and then with a shipowner. His second employer helped him to study further, but at the age of twenty-six, James Cook made the biggest decision of his life — to join the British Navy.

Not many people are willing to go backwards in life but James Cook did. The shipowner had just offered him a chance to be in charge of a ship. Instead he became an ordinary sailor on low pay. Why? He loved the sea and he felt that because England was at war with France, he could become an officer quickly.

His gamble paid off. On his first ship he met a captain who appreciated his abilities and helped him. Within a month he was promoted. In the next ten years he made many trips to North America. He became famous for his maps of the coast an drivers and was soon well known as an excellent leader and navigator.

When Cook was forty years old, the British Navy chose him for an unusual job. He was given command of an ugly, flat-bottomed ship called the *Endeavour*.

Both captain and ship were chosen for their experience and reliability. The *Endeavour* made one trip but James Cook completed three more trips before he was killed in Hawaii.

Land of the Southern Cross,
M. Bowering, L. Kerr, L. Soper

TEXT 5A: HISTORICAL RECOUNT (HISTORY) STAGES

Orientation	The European battlefront was a very different affair from the situation in the Middle East. Early in April 1917, the 1st Anzac Corps was transported to that part of northern France known as Flanders.
Events	Here they took over a section of the front, south-east of Armentiers, facing the powerful, well-trained German army. Both sides were locked together in an endless array of trenches padded with sandbags and protected by thick belts of barbed wire. The Australians were issued with British steel helmets and gas masks, for the Germans were using poisonous gas in their attacks. The first months were fairly quiet. The intermittent artillery and sniper fire contrasted favourably with the terrible conditions of Gallipoli. The troops enjoyed better rations, patrolled 'No Man's Land' (the area between opposing trenches) freely and watched aerial dog-fights for amusement. Gradually, the raids on both sides increased and the troops came to appreciate their helmets and gas masks. The enemy raided first on 5 May and a month later an Australian raiding party, all volunteers, retaliated and succeeded in taking prisoners. More raids followed but they were nothing compared to the battle that was to come in July. On the first of that month, the British launched their tragically famous offensive on the Somme.
Re-orientation	The battle of the Somme was to become a series of battles against the Germans in northern France, lasting several months.

For Australia's Sake,
M. Simmelhaig and G.F.R. Spenceley

TEXT 6A HISTORICAL RECOUNT (GEOGRAPHY) STAGES

European contact with Papua New Guinea

Orientation

Between 1528 and 1874, navigators came to know and map the coast. It was another seventy years before foreigners discovered the fertile and well-populated highland valleys.

Events

Colonisation
In 1828 Holland took the west half of the island. In 1884 Britain took the south-east and Germany the north-east. After World War I Australia governed all the eastern half.

The Kiaps were patrol officers whose duties included preventing the supply of firearms, drugs, and alcohol to native people.

After World War II, Australia increased investments of money and people in PNG, its only colony.

Independence, 1975
By 1962, partly as a response to UN pressure for decolonisation, Australia began preparing the country for independence. For example, a few people were given opportunities for tertiary education.

In 1975 PNG became an independent nation. Australia still lends large amounts of money to PNG. Many businesses and public servants are Australian.

Learning to Look Through a Geographer's Eyes, Book 2,
N. Gallagher, J. Oliver & I. Wilson

ACCESSING LEARNING

teaching/learning activity
jigsaw

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JIGSAW

Learner Task 1

Read the following description of the jigsaw activity.

Workshop Task 1

1

> In a jigsaw activity groups of students read different but connected passages, each of which supplies some part of what they need to know. They then come together to exchange and pool their information and are thereby enabled to reconstruct a complete picture of a situation or perform a task.
>
> Penny Ur (1984) p. 152

How does jigsaw differ from other reading activities?

Commentary

The jigsaw activity is different from other reading activities in that each group has different information and it is only by pooling information that the students can completely understand the text.

Learner Task 2

The jigsaw *Baboushka* on page 28 has been developed for use with a class exploring the structure of a narrative. (See the language we use for recounting.) Its purpose is to highlight the stages of a narrative by asking the students to re-assemble a narrative which has been divided into its generic stages. (It would therefore be a useful activity for the modelling stage of a unit of work which is to result in narrative writing.)

Individually read through the procedure which follows the text, or, in a group situation, ask one member to act as teacher and role play the jigsaw activity with you.

Workshop Task 2

1 to 1-2

Coordinator to distribute Handout 1 or conduct role play.

BABOUSHKA JIGSAW - MARKED FOR CUTTING

1 to 1-2

The story of Baboushka comes from Russia.

BABOUSHKA PART C

Baboushka was a housewife who kept the cleanest house in the whole village. In fact, that is all she was interested in. When a new star appeared in the sky, she wasn't interested. She kept cleaning.

1. What did Baboushka like doing most?
2. Was she easily distracted from it?

BABOUSHKA PART A

But then there was a knock on the door. Baboushka opened the door. There were three kings outside! They wanted to stay at Baboushka's house until night-time, when they would follow the star again. They said that the star would lead them to a baby called Jesus who would be king of Earth and Heaven. Baboushka made them a lovely meal, and they stayed until night-time.

When night came, the kings were ready to follow the star. They asked Baboushka if she would come with them. They said she could take the baby some food or a toy as a present. But Baboushka said she would have to clean first, and would follow later on. So she cleaned and cleaned... until she fell asleep.

1. Who was at the door?
2. What did they want?
3. Where would the star lead them?
4. What could Baboushka give as a present?
5. What did she say she had to do first?

BABOUSHKA PART D

When she woke up, it was morning. Because it was morning, Baboushka could not see the star, and so she could not follow the kings. She went from place to place asking people if the kings had been there. Yes, they had, but now they had gone. At each place she stopped, she left some of her presents for the little children.

1. Why could Baboushka not see the star?
2. What did Baboushka do?

BABOUSHKA PART B

The Russian people say that Baboushka is still looking, and it is she who leaves presents for children at Christmas.

3. Who do Russians believe leaves presents for children at Christmas?

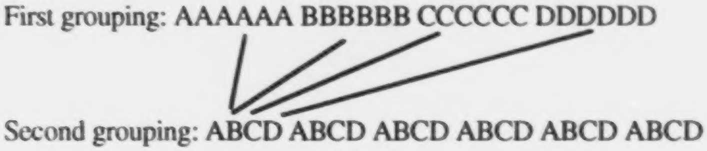
PROCEDURE

1. Write the first sentence *The Story of Baboushka comes from Russia* on the black board. Ask students to predict what the story will be about. This process activates their schemata. Check understanding of the name *Baboushka* (it means grandmother in Russian).

Discuss different cultural perceptions of Christmas and Santa Claus, drawing on student knowledge and outside sources. Remind students of the stages in a narrative (Orientation, Complication, Resolution, Coda).

2. Put students into four groups. Each group receives a different part (stage) of the narrative, reads its part and answers the questions designed to ensure understanding. The teacher checks that all students understand their section of the jigsaw.

3. Ask students to regroup so that each new group has one member who has read each part of the narrative.



First grouping: AAAAAA BBBBBB CCCCCC DDDDDD

Second grouping: ABCD ABCD ABCD ABCD ABCD ABCD

4. Ask students to answer the final task questions below. They should then try to identify the correct order of the stages by retelling them to each other. When they have completed the reordering they should be able to match each part to the generic stage labels which have remained on the blackboard. Ask them to identify the language signals at the beginning of each stage which helped them decide on the correct order etc.

Final Task Questions

2

Who is Baboushka?

What does she like doing most?

Who visited her?

Why didn't she follow them?

What did Baboushka do as she tried to follow them?

Has she stopped searching?

In which order do the parts of the story belong?

Match each part of the story to a stage of a narrative.

Commentary

In the following version of the stages of the narrative have been marked and correspond to the way the text was divided to make the jigsaw. The language signals are in bold.

STAGES AND LANGUAGE FEATURES

3

2

The story of Baboushka comes from Russia

Orientation	**Baboushka was a housewife** who kept the cleanest house in the whole village. In fact, that is all she was interested in. When a new star appeared in the sky, she wasn't interested. She kept cleaning.
Complication	**But then** there was a knock on the door. Baboushka opened the door. There were three kings outside! They wanted to stay at Baboushka's house until night-time, when they would follow the star again. They said that the star would lead them to a baby called Jesus who would be king of Earth and Heaven. Baboushka made them a lovely meal, and they stayed until night-time. **When night came**, the kings were ready to follow the star. They asked Baboushka if she would come with them. They said she could take the baby some food or a toy as a present. But Baboushka said she would have to clean first, and would follow later on. So she cleaned and cleaned... until she fell asleep.
Resolution	**When she woke up**, it was morning. Because it was morning, Baboushka could not see the star, and so she could not follow the kings. She went from place to place asking people if the kings had been there. Yes, they had, but now they had gone. At each place she stopped, she left some of her presents for the little children.
Coda	**The Russian people** say that Baboushka is still looking, and it is she who leaves presents for children at Christmas.

Orientation

The Orientation begins by naming the central character of the story in the Theme position and describing/classifying her for the reader. This use of report-like language, including relational rather than action verbs, is typical of the Orientation stage of a narrative.

Complication, Resolution and Coda

The two **action** stages of the text (Complication and Resolution) are characterised by action verbs, time (temporal) connectives and personal pronouns to refer to characters the reader has already met.

The coda is often a **moral-like** ending to the story and is distinguished by having generalised participants as can be seen here.

Learner Task 3

What are the key steps of the jigsaw procedure?

Workshop Task 3

4

3

Pre-reading

- Preparation
- Grouping

Reading

- Reading
- Task
- Teacher checks comprehension

Post-reading

- Re-grouping
- Task

BENEFITS OF THE JIGSAW PROCESS

- Jigsaw provides the opportunity to focus on generic stages and characteristic language features of the genre being studied. (This is particularly useful for the Modelling stage of the teaching/learning cycle).
- There is an almost total absence of chalk-and-talk by the teacher which allows the students to take a more active role in the reading and learning process.
- There is a high retention rate of the content of the material used.
- All readers, confident and struggling, are given a real reason and motivation for attempting to comprehend the materials.
- The jigsaw adds interesting and entertaining variety to the teaching situation for both students and teachers.
- There is an increased focus on cooperative behaviour between students in the classroom.

JIGSAW VARIATIONS

Grouping

Instead of randomly assigning ABC groupings according to where the students are sitting in the class, the teacher can take the opportunity to structure the group combinations, eg to group struggling readers with confident readers.

5

4

Text types

Information can be complementary or conflicting. For example, the jigsaw can consist of:

- parts of a single text;
- points of view;
- different descriptions of the same thing, event etc;
- the different generic stages of a text.

Text division

The text can be cut into any number of parts. Initial and/or final sections can be read as a class.

Text delivery

Audio or audiovisual materials can be substituted for written text.

Text sources

- textbooks;
- newspapers/magazines;
- student written texts;
- teacher written texts.

Task design

Students can be asked to:

- answer questions;
- fill in a grid;
- draw or complete a map or diagram.

Variations in the task design can often engage the students at the literal level of understanding and ensure the accurate content knowledge necessary to participate effectively in the grouping. These task types can also be used as formats for completing the final task of the jigsaw.

Students can also be asked to:

- move beyond the initial text-based task to higher-order activities such as interpreting and evaluating;
- complete follow-up activities such as using the information gained in the jigsaw to write an essay.

JIGSAW IN PRACTICE

Learner Task 4

The following computer jigsaw in five parts has been developed for Technological and Applied Studies students from *Introduction to Understanding Computers*.

How would you organise a lesson in which you used this jigsaw?

When you have satisfied yourself with a response to the above question, re-examine Parts A to D of the jigsaw and work through the tasks.

Workshop Task 4

6

COMPUTER JIGSAW: INTRODUCTION

5 to 5-4

UNDERSTANDING COMPUTERS

Computers are electronic machines that are being used more and more in industry, business and home situations. Computers have an extremely wide number of uses, from the control units in car engines to microwave ovens.

Computers are electronic

Electronic because the machine uses electronic switches (called gates) in its circuits. These circuits are made microscopically small so that many can fit on a single 'microchip'.

Computers are information processors

Information (or data) can be input **into** the computer by people or other machines, **processed** in the computer, then **output** from the computer and interpreted by people or other machines.

In a similar way, a person can be thought of as an 'information processing system': The nervous system acts as an input device whilst the brain acts as the information processor.

Computers are machines

Despite the claims of some science fiction writers, computers are **man-made devices**; they are incapable of original thought and can only operate within the confines of their original designs.

Computers are programmable

The computer must be given instructions which tell it how to handle information. Without these sets of stored instructions or programs it is unable to operate.

Computers can be instructed to perform many functions

Most computers are multi-functional. Unlike, say, a washing machine which is dedicated to the single task of washing clothes — a computer can be instructed or programmed to do a number of different tasks. For example:

- play computer games;
- perform complicated calculations in a spreadsheet;
- access and organise information;
- write this paragraph.

A computer is a multi-functional and programmable electronic information processing machine.

The computer system

In a system the separate parts work together to produce a complete working unit. In motor cars the engine, brakes, transmission and steering are all necessary for the car to operate. Each part or component of the system is related to the other parts, and if one part is removed the system does not work as intended. Remove the engine and the car will not be able to be driven up hills; remove the steering and the driver will not be able to control the car's direction.

A computer system is made up of a number of interrelated components (parts which are linked together). They must all function for the system to work properly. For example, if a computer does not have a screen (or monitor) it is difficult to check the input (or typing).

Computer Jigsaw: Part A

Input devices
The main devices that input information into a microcomputer are:

- keyboards;
- graphics inputs;
- audio (voice) inputs;
- direct inputs.

1. Keyboards

The most commonly used microcomputer input is the keyboard, similar to that found on a typewriter but with extra keys to access special functions.

2. Graphics input devices

Some of the peripherals that can be used to put drawings into a computer include the following:

a) Mouses/Trackballs use a rotating ball system to transfer hand movements to a pointer on the screen.

b) Joysticks are now used mainly for games and simulations but were once used for drawing.

c) Graphics pads or data tablets contain a fine mesh of wires embedded in a sheet of plastic which detects movement of a magnetic pen.

d) Scanners are used to convert pictures into graphic images that can be stored in a computer's memory.

e) Light pens electronically draw on the screen.

f) Digitisers are articulated arms linked to electronic controls. When the pointer at the end of the arm traces over a drawing, the picture is reproduced on the monitor.

3. Audio input devices

Computers can have microphones attached that allow speech and other sound to be recorded as digital information. Some computers have been developed that can respond to a small range of previously-learnt spoken words. New users have to re-teach the computer to recognise their voice before they can use the system.

4. Direct input devices

Direct input devices communicate with the computer without requiring human contact. Sensors or detecting devices send information to the computer and can be used to detect temperature, movement, electrical current or force. For example, computer sensors can be used in weighing machines or to monitor the temperature inside buildings and to control the movements of robots. Computers can also be linked to other computers and other electronic machines such as cash registers and automatic tellers in banks. The information received can either be processed immediately, or stored for retrieval at a later time.

Learner Task 5

Draw a taxonomy of the types of input devices used with a computer.

Workshop Task 5

Computer Jigsaw: Part B

The central processing unit (CPU)

The central processing unit is the 'brain' of the computer system. All computers contain a CPU which:

- acts as an extremely fast and powerful calculator which:
  - a) takes numbers or characters from the internal memory.
  - b) manipulates (adds, subtracts and compares) the numbers according to a set of instructions (called a program) stored in another area of memory.
- handles the movement of data inside the computer.

Processed data from the CPU is stored temporarily in RAM, before output to a monitor, printer or other Input/Output (I/O) device.

The CPU carries out many Millions of these Instructions Per Second (MIPS).

The CPU is a microchip — a piece of silicon smaller than a fingernail with thousands of minute electronic circuits and components enclosed in a ceramic or plastic case. Metal 'legs' act as connectors to the rest of the computer system.

The technology used in the construction of these microscopic circuits is called microelectronics.

Learner Task 6

Workshop Task 6

Draw a flow chart representing the movement of data from the CPU to the output device.

Computer Jigsaw: Part C

Memory

The computer stores information in memory. Computers use two types of memory.

Volatile Memory
Volatile memory loses the stored contents when its power source is removed. Random Access Memory (RAM) is a common example of volatile memory. Whilst the computer is powered on, the CPU is able to access any information held in the RAM. RAM is used in a computer for its ability to move large quantities of data in an extremely short time period. It provides a buffer between the super-fast CPU and the relatively slow hard disk and floppy disk.

Computers vary in the amount of installed RAM. Until recently, installed RAM was usually measured in kilobytes (thousands of Bytes), but with reduced cost and the increasing demands placed on systems by more and more complex software, it has become common for a system's RAM to be measured in megabytes (millions of Bytes).

Non-volatile Memory
Non-volatile memory can hold its data even after power has been removed from the system. ROM, floppy disks, hard disks and streaming tape systems are all examples of non-volatile memory.

a) **Read-only Memory (ROM)** is permanent. The program data has been burned into the ROM chip. These ROMs are used to hold information or programs that are frequently required by the computer. IBM's PS/2 contains the programming language IBM BASIC in a ROM which allows the system to be started without any external startup when the machine is switched off.

b) **Floppy Disks**: As the name suggests, a floppy disk is a thin, flexible, circular, plastic film coated in magnetic particles. The film is sandwiched between two fabric sheets and housed in a robust outer plastic over for protection. A floppy disk generally stores between 100 kilobytes and 4 megabytes of data. Physical sizes usually range from 3.5" to 8".

c) **Hard Disks**: These generally range in capacities from 40 megabytes to several gigabytes (1,000,000,000 Bytes). Hard disks are able to transfer data much faster than floppy disks. With their increased capacities and speed comes higher cost.

d) **Compact-disc Read-only Memory (CDROM) Drives**: These are a Read-only device capable of storing up to 650 megabytes on a disc similar to that used to record audio. The data is read from the disc with a low-power laser.

e) **Magneto-optical (MO) Drives**: These generally range in capacity from 20 megabytes to over a gigabyte. Some types are erasable, whilst others can only be written to once.

f) **Streaming Tape**: Tape is generally used to backup or archive large amounts of data from hard disks for security purposes. Due to their heavy usage, hard disks are prone to occasional failure, and backups are essential to ensure data is not lost.

Learner Task 7

Draw a taxonomy of the memory types in a computer. You may include an example level at the bottom.

Workshop Task 7

Computer Jigsaw: Part D

Output devices
The most common devices that receive the output from a microcomputer are:

- monitors;
- printers and plotters;
- audio (voice, music);
- directly controlled devices.

Monitors
These television-type displays can be in colour or monochrome (black and a contrasting colour such as gold, amber, green or white). These are used to display text and graphics. Modern monitors generally have a higher resolution (dots per unit area) than a television screen.

Printers and Plotters
These transfer the output onto paper, film or card. Several types of printer are in common usage today.

Dot matrix (impact) printers fire a series of pins at an inked ribbon between the print head and the paper to print each character, or to produce graphics.

Daisy wheel and line printers hammer letters against an inked or carbon-film ribbon to produce letter-quality print.

Thermal printers create an image on heat-sensitive paper by contacting hot pins with the paper.

Ink jet printers spray fine droplets of ink onto paper through a special nozzle.

Laser printers use electrical charges, plastic powder and a laser or LED array to produce output of near-typeset quality.

Plotters use a series of pens held in a movable arm to draw an image on large-format paper or film. Plotters are used in architectural and general CAD applications.

Audio Devices
These output sound to enhance games, applications and learning-aids such as multimedia encyclopaedias and simulations.

Directly-controlled Devices
With appropriate software, computers can produce signals which directly control machines and instruments. Examples of directly-controlled devices include:

- traffic lights
- air-conditioning systems
- mass-production machinery (such as CNC lathes)

Learner Task 8

Draw a taxonomy of the kinds of output devices with a computer.

Workshop Task 8

Learner Task 9

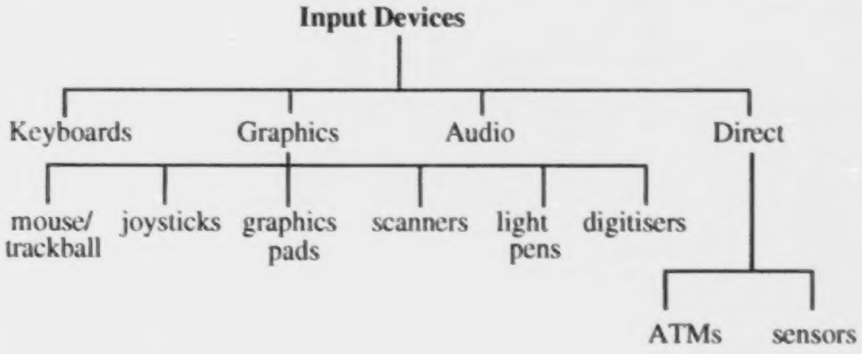
Having completed Learner Tasks 5 – 8, take some time to compare your responses to those which follow. Then, list the steps you would use to organise the stages of this jigsaw lesson.

Workshop Task 9

6 to 6-1

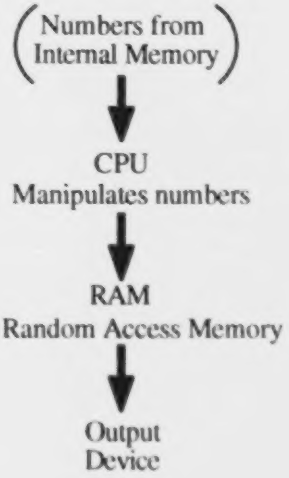
Learner Task 5 (Jigsaw Part A) Solution

Taxonomy of input devices


Input Devices
Keyboards
Graphics
Audio
Direct
mouse/ trackball
joysticks
graphics pads
scanners
light pens
digitisers
ATMs
sensors

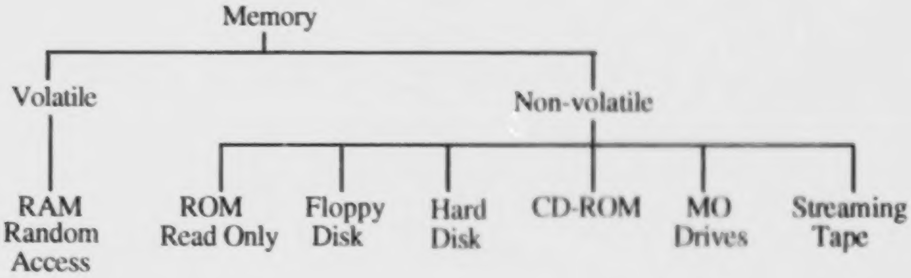
Learner Task 6 (Jigsaw Part B) Solution

Flow chart of data from CPU to output device


Numbers from Internal Memory
CPU
Manipulates numbers
RAM
Random Access Memory
Output Device

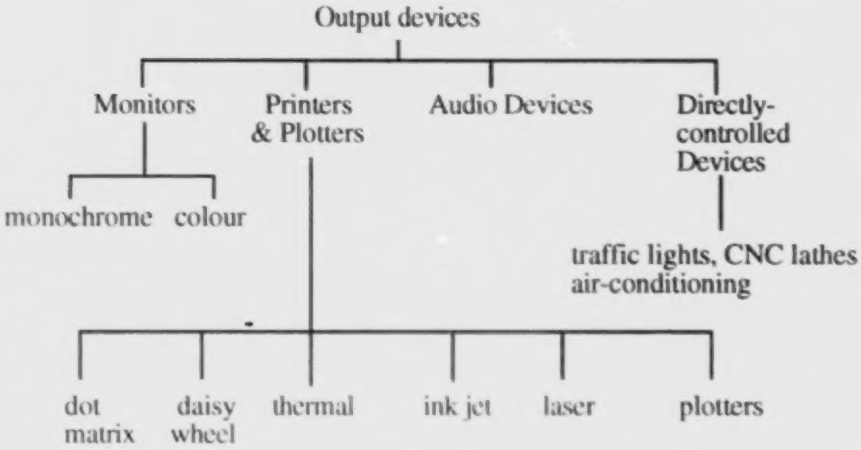
Learner Task 7 (Jigsaw Part C) Solution

Taxonomy of memory types


Memory
Volatile
Non-volatile
RAM Random Access
ROM Read Only
Floppy Disk
Hard Disk
CD-ROM
MO Drives
Streaming Tape

Learner Task 8 (Jigsaw Part D) Solution

Taxonomy of output devices


Output devices
Monitors
Printers & Plotters
Audio Devices
Directly-controlled Devices
monochrome
colour
traffic lights, CNC lathes air-conditioning
dot matrix
daisy wheel
thermal
ink jet
laser
plotters

The computer jigsaw is written in the report genre. It sets up the relationships between the various components of computer systems. Tasks 5 – 9 were designed to focus on this important feature by asking students to draw taxonomies from parts of the report. The final Task 10 also focuses on the central role of taxonomies and definitions in this type of report writing.

Learner Task 10

Workshop Task 10

7

1. Matching Activity

Component	**Definition**
Output Devices	These allow data to be entered into a computer. The keyboard is a common example but other similar devices include mouses, joysticks, scanner and sensors.
Central Processing Unit (CPU)	The location of data before and after it has been processed by the CPU.
Memory	The 'brain' of the computer system.
Input Devices	These allow processed data to be accessed by the user. The most common of these include monitors and printers.

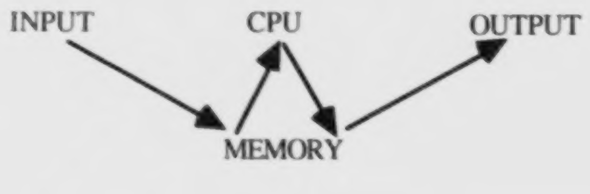
2. Design a flow chart that shows the interrelationship of- each of these components.

Task 10 Solution

8

1. **Component**	**Definition**
Input Devices	These allow data to be entered into a computer, The keyboards is a common example but other similar devices include mouses, joysticks, scanner and sensors.
Central Processing Unit (CPU)	The 'brain' of the computer system.
Memory	The location of data before and after it has been processed by the CPU.
Output Devices	These allow processed data to be accessed by the user. The most common of these include monitors and printers.

2.



Commentary

A lesson using this jigsaw could proceed as follows:

Pre-reading:	Introduce the topic of computers. Read introduction as a class. Divide students into groups.
Reading:	Hand out readings. Complete tasks in groups. Check that taxonomies are correct and that each student understands his/her component.
Post-reading:	Regroup students. Complete tasks.

POINTS TO REMEMBER

Texts for jigsaw must be:

- engaging and relevant;
- appropriate length for ability of students and time available.

7

Tasks must:

- motivate students to come to a solution;
- be relevant and achievable;
- ensure each student's piece of the jigsaw is necessary for completion of the task;
- emphasise collaboration.

Teacher should:

- be organised for the first and second groupings;
- check that people in the first group understand the text;
- monitor the group work appropriately;
- give clear instructions.

INTO PRACTICE

Learner Task 11

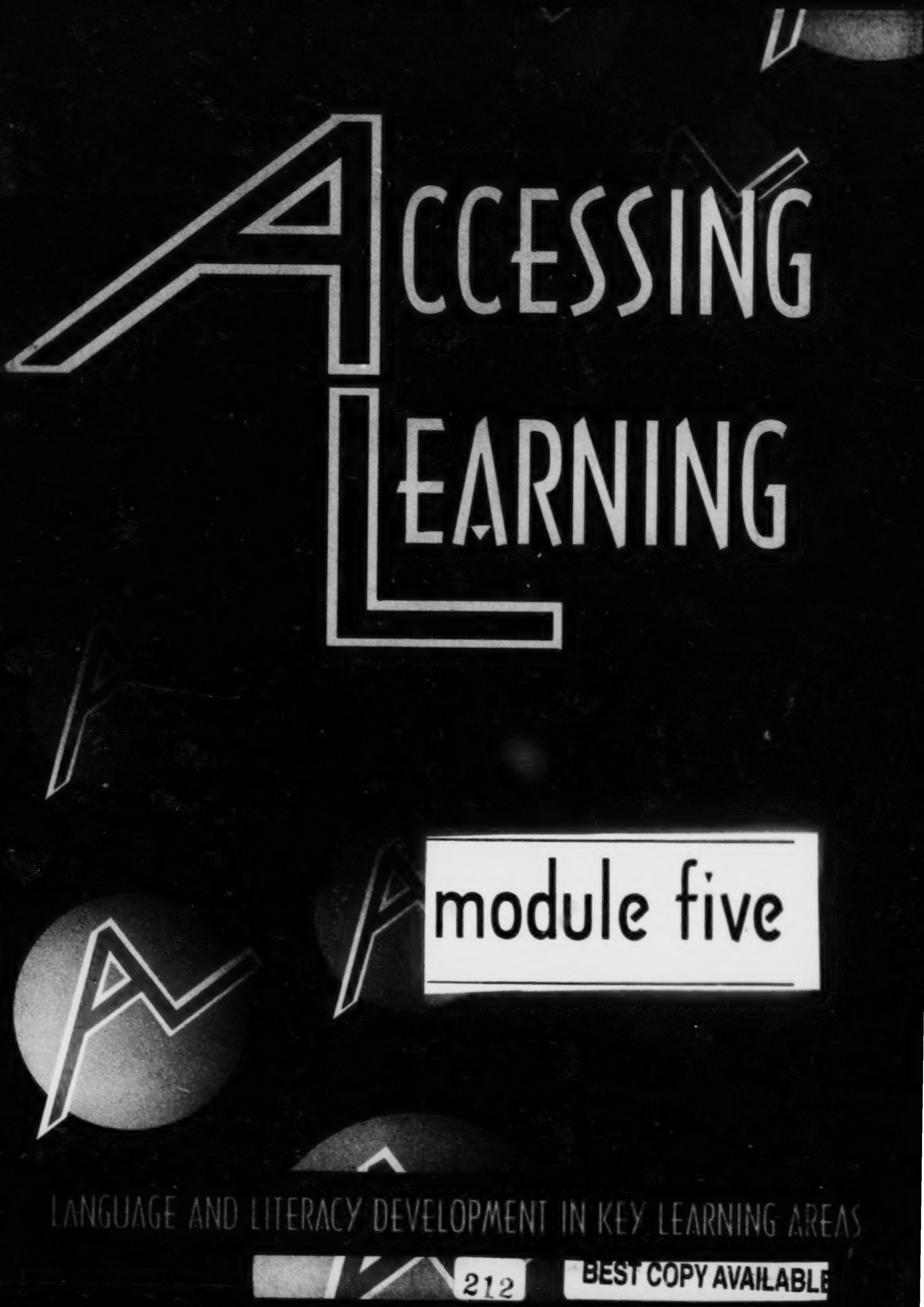
Workshop Task 11

If appropriate, try these jigsaws in your classroom. Other jigsaws have been included in Classroom Units:

History - Part 1
Geography - Part 4
Commerce - Part 4

What do you see as the particular benefits or limitations of jigsaw in your classroom?

You should now turn to the Classroom Units. The Language we use for Recounting applies only in History and Commerce but it would be worthwhile for all teachers to examine Part Two of these units.



ACCESSING LEARNING

module five

LANGUAGE AND LITERACY DEVELOPMENT IN KEY LEARNING AREAS

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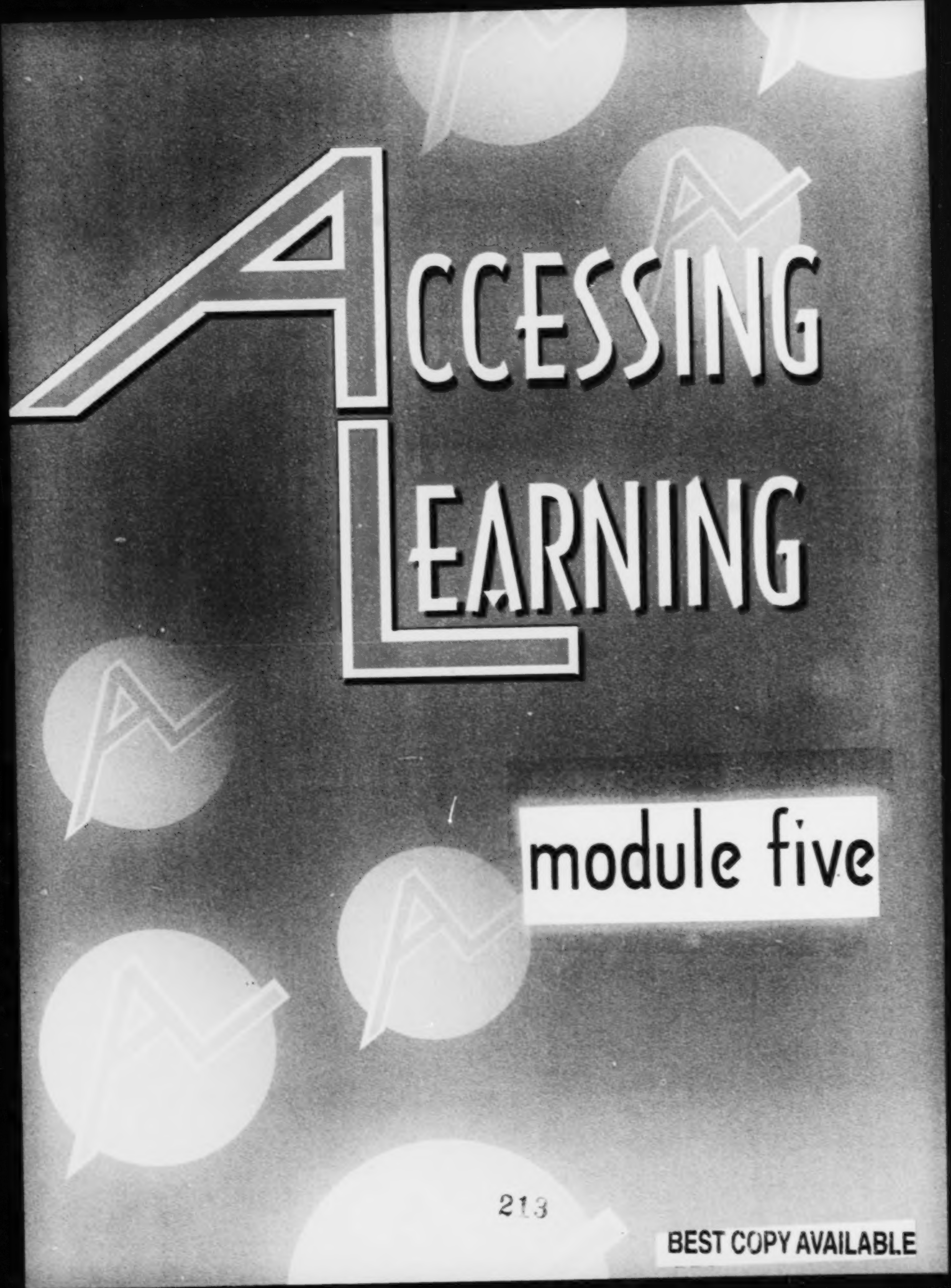

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ISBN 1 86382 051 5 (The complete kit)
1 86382 052 3 (The Outline and all Modules)
1 86382 053 1 (The Blackline Masters)

Funded through the Literacy and Learning General Element, Commonwealth Department of Employment, Education and Training.

Printed and published by the Catholic Education Office, P.O. Box 217, Leichhardt NSW 2040.
Phone (02) 569 6111 Fax (02) 550 0052

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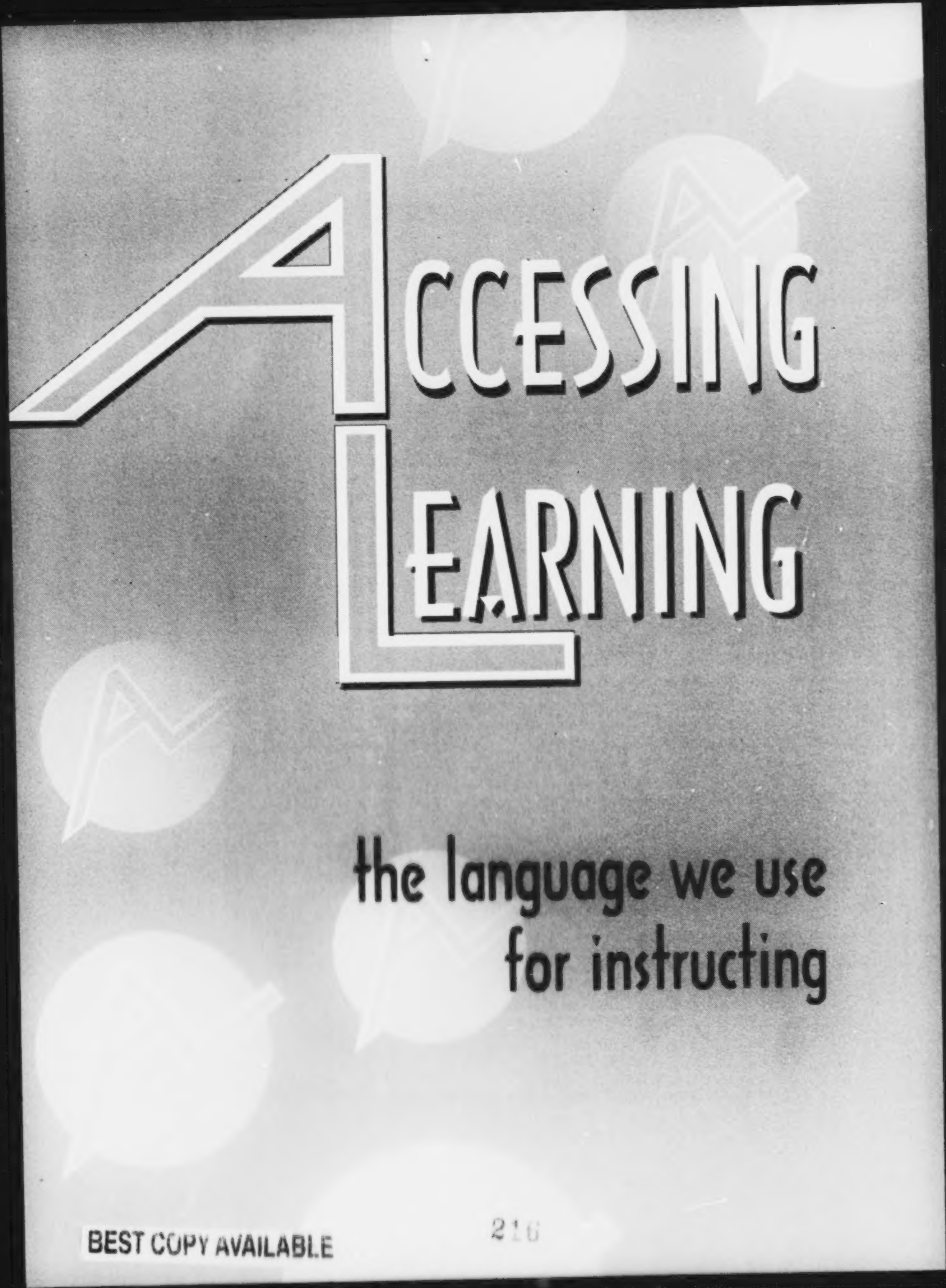

ACCESSING LEARNING

the language we use for instructing

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INTRODUCTION

The language we use for instructing is central to the study of the technology subjects and important also in Commerce and Geography. Instructing is a way of organising for a series of actions that result in making or doing something. Like other macro-functions, it is a commonsense category. The genres of procedure and protocol are the genres associated with it.

In the following section we highlight characteristic language features of the genres to discuss with your students. When students experience difficulty in either reading or writing in these genres use this section to pinpoint the source of difficulty and address it with a shared understanding and metalanguage.

TEXTS

There are seven texts used for working in the genres of this language description. You will find them in two groups , beginning on page 11. First come the original texts, then versions marked 'A' which show division in the genre stages.

List of texts

Text 1: Procedure (Drawing) page 11
Text 2: Procedure (Materials Technology)
Text 3: Protocol (Drawing)
Text 4: Protocol (Materials and Technology)
Text 5: Procedure (Textiles and Design)
Text 6: Protocol/Argument (Commerce)
Text 7: Protocol (Geography)

Text 1A: Procedure (Drawing) Stages page 19
Text 2A: Procedure (Materials Technology) Stages
Text 3A: Protocol (Drawing) Stages
Text 4A: Protocol (Materials and Technology) Stages
Text 5A: Procedure (Textiles and Design) Stages
Text 6A: Protocol/Argument (Commerce) Stages
Text 7A: Protocol (Geography) Stages

PROCEDURES AND PROTOCOLS

Procedures and protocols are both genres of instructing. We will examine the purpose and stages of each separately and look at their common language features.

Learner Task 1

The working texts are seven procedures/protocols from textbooks in Technological and Applied Studies, Commerce and Geography. Read the one(s) relevant to your subject and consider the following:

What is the purpose of this procedure/protocol?

Who would read it and why?

Workshop Task 1

1

1 to 1-9

PURPOSE OF A PROCEDURE

Procedures tell us how to make or do something. This is usually in the form of instructions, directions or rules. The focus of procedural texts is on a sequence of events. Therefore, the order in which these events occur is a key feature.

Procedures are different from recounts in that they do not simply relate what someone did, but generalise about the experience: how one goes about doing something. Procedures occur in all Technological and Applied Studies subjects and in the Human Society and its Environment subjects Commerce and Geography.

Remember the Commerce text in Module Three about Jenny and John starting a business? There the expectation may have been that the text would be a procedure — a 'how to' — but the text is in fact a recount of two particular people, Jenny and John. It is important to be aware that the title does not always accurately reflect the genre of the text that follows.

STAGES OF A PROCEDURE

Goal

The goal is what you wish to achieve. It is often the heading or title of the text, eg *Fastening Drawing Paper to your Drawing Board.*

Materials

Materials (or ingredients) may follow the Goal, listed in order of use. This is an optional stage, in that the materials are often assumed, eg it may be assumed that the text is being read in a workshop where the materials, tools etc are available.

Method

The Method is the steps to be taken in order to achieve the Goal. This stage of the text is usually the longest and is often numbered and/or in point form.

Visual material such as diagrams, tables and photos can be incorporated to support the written text. (See Texts 1, 5 and 7.)

Reading graphics presents a number of problems for students who need to be able to recognise that information presented in a text can be represented diagrammatically. Often the relationship between the text and diagram is confusing and students may fail to understand the significance of some things. It is often the case that students cannot understand a diagram unless they already understand the content it represents.

Summary of stages

The generic structure of procedure can be stated as:

Goal ^ (Materials) ^ Method

2

PURPOSE OF A PROTOCOL

Protocols are similar to procedures in function, but their purpose is to set out preconditions or guidelines, or provide a checklist for doing something or doing something successfully. The genre establishes what is necessary before the practitioner starts to 'do'. It is not like a procedure for performing some kind of operation, in that it does not matter in what order the instructions are performed as long as they are all performed or taken into account.

Protocols tend to occur early in textbooks, reflecting their function as being preparatory to action. When protocols occur later in a textbook it is where a new type of activity is to be introduced. A protocol is sometimes followed directly by a procedure.

STAGES OF A PROTOCOL

Protocols are similar to procedures. Most consist of two stages called **Goal and General Conditions.** Usually there is more than one general condition and they are set out as a list. The sequence is irrelevant and so they should not be numbered.
Visual material such as diagrams, tables and photos can be incorporated to support the written text, but interpreting these and linking their meaning to the text may need explicit teaching for students.

However, protocols don't simply appear in a textbook, without a context. They are sometimes introduced by a short explanation or argument, as in Text 6 *Successes and Failures.* In this text, the protocol is embedded in an argument about successes and failures in small business. There is no correct order to perform the tasks, and most should be repeated, so they are a protocol — guidelines for success. In Commerce, protocols introduce students to the generally accepted practices of the subject.

In Geography, procedures are not strictly procedures as such. They are not so much instructions for making something but rather instructions about how to read and interpret something, eg a map. Sometimes the texts are more like protocols — a list of guidelines which do tell you how to do something but in no particular order. These texts are designed to teach a mental activity that requires interpretation and understanding rather than requiring the student to physically do something.

Text 7 is a report-oriented protocol, ie a report blended with a protocol. The report sections appear where additional information is necessary to support the protocol, and is of secondary importance to the text, which is primarily about how to read a map rather than giving information about maps. It provides instructions about how to read contour maps and then a task of comparing contours on the map with another map. In other words, students have to read then do, followed by doing a larger exercise. It is sometimes not easy for students to actually locate in the text the instructions they need.

Summary of Stages

The generic structure of protocol can be stated as:

Goal^General Conditions

2

Workshop Task 2

Learner Task 2 Compare your answers with a version of the text (page 19)

Now that you have information on the purpose and structure of procedures and protocols, go back to the texts from your subject and consider these questions:

How would you divide the text into stages?
What is the purpose of each stage?

2 to 2-9

The Coordinator provides the Handouts once the tasks have been completed.

LANGUAGE FEATURES

In this section we will look more closely at how we use language for instructing in procedures and protocols, and focus the language choices.

Learner Task 3

Re-read the texts relevant to you and consider these questions:

Does the text use mainly statements or commands?

How does the reader know in what order to do things?

Are the participants mainly human or non-human?

Workshop Task 3

3

Commentary

The texts share common language features. These are outlined below and relate to the question above.

4

3

- The person following the instructions is not mentioned *(place the drawing sheet)* or is reported in a general way *(you/one).*
- Sentences are usually stated as commands, beginning with the verb, eg *place, press, use, analyse.*
- The tense is timeless and stated in the present, eg *Place the drawing sheet ..., press the T square.*
- Sometimes linking words or phrases (temporal connectives) are used to show the sequence of steps, eg *first, next, when you have done this, then.* If they are not specifically mentioned in the text, they are still implied, eg *Draw four different sections or mechanisms used in a sewing machine.* (then) *Identify where they are used in the sewing machine.*
- Successful readers know what the correct order is, and when they are familiar with this kind of text they know a deviation from the implied order would result in a failure.
- There is detailed factual information with no attitudinal words, eg *When contour lines are close together (1mm or less on a ruler).*
- There is detailed information on 'how', eg ***slowly** rotate the handle.*
- Participants are mostly non-human, eg *contour maps, die, drawing sheets, sewing machines.*
- Reference is often beyond or outside the text.

Technological subjects all show movement from text to activity, ie they are subjects fundamentally about doing.

Learner Task 4

Workshop Task 4

4 to 4-1
Coordinator to provide Handout after the task is completed.

Refer to the Glossary of Language Features in Module Two for an explanation of Theme:

Look at the text in your subject area and underline the Themes.

Commentary

The Theme of a sentence is what comes first in the sentence. It is a significant feature of English as the Theme of the sentence is what you choose to make the starting point of your message to the reader. By changing the Theme of a sentence you can significantly change the meaning of the sentence.

Consider these two sentences from Text 2, a procedure from Materials Technology:

1. *The process of testing and adjusting* is continued until the threads mate with one another.
2. *The threads* mate with one another after the process of testing and adjusting is completed.

In the first sentence the Theme is the noun group the *process of testing and adjusting* and by placing this in the first position of the sentence, the focus is on the process. In the second sentence by making the Theme *the threads*, it places the focus on *the threads*, the thing, rather than the process.

Theme in Texts 1, 2 and 5 (procedure texts)

In Text 1, the Themes are the verbs, *place*, *press*, *hold* and *check*. The sentences are in the form of a command (implicitly meaning 'you place') and the person being addressed is not mentioned. Each step of the procedure in this text is introduced with the command form which makes the reader aware that some action is required.

This is in contrast to Text 2, where the procedure is written as a statement. In this text, the passive voice is used, which takes the focus away from getting someone to do something, to the exchange of information. This is a text designed to be used in a classroom to tell about a procedure, rather than a text which is a set of direct instructions to be used in a workshop. Therefore reference to, and descriptions of, the tools to be used, has to be explicit. This results in the text looking far more report-like, that is, written as a statement. In texts for use in the workshop the verb is put in Theme position because the focus is on the action, rather than telling about the action. The statement form can make it difficult for students to actually locate the actions they are expected to perform. By the use of the passive voice, the Theme of the text concentrates on the objects concerned in the activity rather than on the actions.

The Themes in Text 2 are:

1. *To cut the external thread (commonly called screwing)*
2. *Scale*
3. *The end of the bar*
4. *The end of the bar*
5. *The die*
6. *The die*
7. *The thread*
8. *The thread*
9. *The thread*
10. *The process of testing and adjusting.*

Text 5, the other procedure text, has the following Themes:

Step 1: *Look*
Step 2: *On your unlabelled diagram or sketch of your machine*
Step 3: *Identify*
Step 4: *Look*
Step 5: *On the unlabelled diagram of your machine*
Step 6: *In a sewing machine*
Step 7: *Write*
Step 8: *Identify*
Step 9: *Name.*

In Text 5 the questions a) and b) in Step 1, and the descriptions that appear in Steps 3 and 4 are not typical of workshop procedures but add a 'teacher talk' dimension to the text, making it more of a classroom text than a workshop procedure. Again this may make it difficult to locate the actual procedure to be followed, and may also provide an inaccurate model of what a clear procedure should look like.

Theme in Texts 3, 4, 6 and 7 (protocol texts)

Texts 3, 4 and 6 use the command form so the focus is on the activity; the Themes are predominantly action verbs and the person being addressed is not mentioned.

The Themes in Text 3 are:

1. *Keep*
2. *Rotate*
3. *Keep*
4. *Never sharpen*
5. *Use*
6. *The outlines of a drawing, both curved and straight*
7. *The drawing surface*
8. *Place*
9. *A piece of paper*
10. *All lettering.*

Points 6, 7, 9 and 10 have a noun group as the Theme, which puts the focus on the thing. However, the other points put the focus on the action by placing the verb in Theme position.

The Themes in Text 4 are:

1. *Never strike*
2. *Always pull*
3. *Always select*
4. *Don't use*
5. *Repair*
6. *When using adjustable spanners*
7. *Make sure there is......*

The Themes in Text 6 are:

1. *Analyse*
2. *Estimate and keep*
3. *Review*
4. *Review*
5. *Be prepared to make.*

These three texts are in contrast to Text 7, where the protocol is written as statements and so the Themes are not verbs, but usually noun groups.

The Themes in Text 7 are:

1. *When contour lines*
2. *When contour lines*
3. *Hills*
4. *Ridges*
5. *Plateaus*
6. *Undulating land*
7. *Valley contours.*

By using statements rather than commands, the emphasis is placed on the exchange of information, as it is in the report genre. Early in this protocol the text moves into a report. This blending of the two genres allows the build-up of knowledge about the subject (through the report genre) which is essential before students are in a position to do the actions required in the protocol, but which may make it more difficult for students to identify the actions required of them.

Learner Task 5

Look at the text in your subject and identify the temporal connectives.

Refer to the Glossary of Language Features in Module Two for an explanation of temporal connectives.

Workshop Task 5

5

Coordinator directs participants to Handouts 1 to 1-9.

Commentary

In the procedural texts (Texts 1, 2 and 5) time words such as *firstly* and *secondly* could be added, as the instructions are sequential. In the protocol texts (Texts, 3, 4, 6 and 7), the steps are not sequential, although they are misleadingly numbered. So, while the steps or stages in the protocol texts look like procedures, they are really preconditions, and the stages can be performed in any order. Text 3, for example, is setting up desired preconditions for drawing. It is not a sequence of instructions in how to do something, but rather what you must do before you start; the order in which you do them is not important. This is the case with the other protocol texts. This distinction may well not be clear to students, who may not realise the necessity of following the steps one after the other with a procedure or, conversely, that this is not necessary with a protocol.

CONCLUSION

The two key genres in this description are protocols and procedures. In Commerce and Design and Technology, they give instructions in how to make or do something, whereas in Geography the procedurally-oriented texts involve instruction about how to read and interpret something, for example, a map.

Most of the texts are written as commands as the aim is to get someone to do something in a particular way. This is in contrast with the language we use for explaining, which tends to be primarily involved with the exchange of information. Procedures and protocols can, however, also be expressed as statements where the focus is on the exchange of information. In both protocols and procedures the person being addressed is not explicitly mentioned and action verbs predominate.

Beginning a task with a procedure or protocol, without having built up sufficient knowledge of the subject for students to make meaningful connections between the written text and the actions expected of them, can set them up to fail.

Students can be encouraged to focus on getting someone to do something in a particular way by using commands, or to focus on exchange of information using statements. Being aware of how to make such choices allows students to make a piece of writing achieve its purpose more effectively.

There are Classroom Unit parts in instructing for Geography, Commerce and Design and Technology.

Before proceeding to these it is recommended that you complete the Teaching/Learning Activity: Cloze.

TEXT 1: PROCEDURE (DRAWING)

1 to 1-9

FASTENING DRAWING PAPER TO YOUR DRAWING BOARD

(a) Place the drawing sheet on your drawing board with its smooth side uppermost and a backing sheet behind it.

(b) Press the T square stock firmly against the working edge of the drawing board with your left hand. Move the drawing sheet so that its lower edge rests on the working edge of the T square blade. Both the drawing sheet and the T square are now moved so that the drawing sheet can be located close to the top left hand corner of the drawing board (Figure 1).

(c) Hold the drawing sheet with your left hand and attach the clips with your right hand.

(d) Check with your T square that the drawing sheet has not moved. If there has been some movement pull the appropriate corner of the sheet and check again.

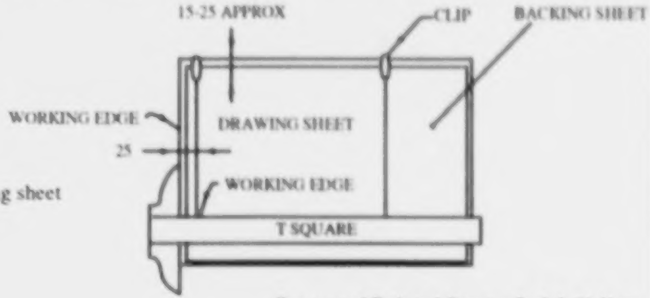


Fig. 1: Positioning sheet and fixing clips

Programmed Technical Drawing Book 2, S1 Units
R.K. Mullins & D.A. Cooper 1974

TEXT 2: PROCEDURE (MATERIALS TECHNOLOGY)

The procedure for cutting external threads is as follows:

1. To cut the external thread (commonly called screwing), the cylinder should first be prepared to the size of the thread's major diameter.
2. Scale is removed from metal having a scaled surface.
3. The end of the bar is filed flat and square to the axis of the bar.
4. The end of the bar is slightly tapered for about 5mm from the end to aid the die cutting.
5. The die is adjusted oversize and placed on the rod.
6. The die is used in a similar manner to the tap previously described. Pressing down to start, turn clockwise and reverse the die each quarter turn to break the chip.
7. The thread is cut by this process to the required length and the die removed.
8. The thread so formed is tried against the internal thread with which it is to work.
9. The thread will normally be a tight fit and the die will need to be adjusted to a slightly smaller size and the thread recut.
10. The process of testing and adjusting is continued until the threads mate with one another.

Metalwork Part One, Second Edition, B.W. Ableson & A.J. Pateman 1988

TEXT 3: PROTOCOL (DRAWING)

DRAWING HINTS

1. Keep your pencil sharp.
2. Rotate a conical point pencil as you draw a line.
3. Keep your instruments clean and in good working order.
4. Never sharpen a pencil over your drawing board or instruments.
5. Use a backing sheet behind your drawing sheet.
6. The outlines of a drawing, both curved and straight, must be uniform and dark enough to stand out clearly from the paper.
7. The drawing surface be kept clear of instruments that are not in direct use.
8. Place your drawing instruments in an orderly position beside the drawing board when not in use.
9. A piece of paper should be placed under your hand when you are dimensioning or lettering a drawing. (This helps to keep your sheet clean.)
10. All lettering must be made using:
    (a) standard letters
    (b) guide and slope lines.

Programmed Technical Drawing Book 2, SI Units
R.K. Mullins & D.A. Cooper 1974

TEXT 4: PROTOCOL (MATERIALS TECHNOLOGY)

USE OF SPANNERS

1. Never strike a spanner with a hammer or use a pipe over the handle to increase leverage.
2. Always pull a spanner, don't push it.
3. Always select a snug-fitting spanner.
4. Don't use adjustable spanners unless a fixed jaw spanner is not available.
5. Repair damaged spanner jaws and discard spanners with spread jaws.
6. When using adjustable spanners, place the fixed jaw behind the nut.
7. Make sure there is sufficient room for the spanner to turn in.

Metalwork Part One, Second Edition
B.W. Ableson & A.J. Pateman 1988

TEXT 5: PROCEDURE (TEXTILES & DESIGN)

MECHANISMS IN A SEWING MACHINE

How to do it

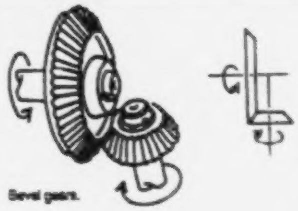
Step 1
Look at your machine and find these features:

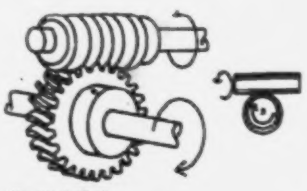
a What type of technology is used in this machine?

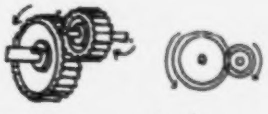
b Where does this energy get fed into the machine?

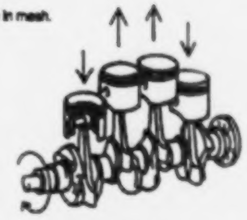
Step 2
On your unlabelled diagram or sketch of your machine, label the type of energy that it uses and where it is fed into the machine.

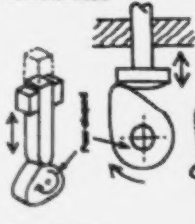
Step 3
Identify the types of mechanical operations used in the domestic sewing machine. In the drawings below you are shown different types of mechanical operations. Each of these situations shows how the parts work as a section (this is called a system).

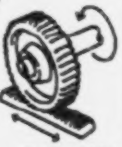

Bevel gears.


Worm and wheels.


Two gears in mesh.


Crank shaft: changing reciprocating motion into roatary motion


Cams and shafts.


Rack and pinion.

cont..

TEXT 5: PROCEDURE (TEXTILES & DESIGN) continued

Step 4 Look inside the machine (with power off) to see how the different parts work together. This is an example of how many parts make up sections or systems and then work together to make a more complicated (complex) section or system work. On the unlabelled diagram of your machine, identify where similar types of operations to those shown above are used to drive the machine.

Step 5 On the unlabelled diagram of your machine, show how these simple mechanical systems work together to make the machine operate.

Step 6 In a sewing machine, there are two main operations which make a stitch form. Identify these two main operations in a sewing machine.

Step 7 Write these in your folio/folder.

Step 8 Identify how these two operations work together.

Step 9 Name the types of mechanisms used in these operations.

Textiles & Design,
T. Hynes & E. Kovesdy 1991

TEXT 6: PROTOCOL/ARGUMENT (COMMERCE)

Note:

Commerce typically embeds one genre within another producing a macro-genre. In the following example there is a protocol embedded in an argument. Analyse only the protocol marked.

SUCCESSES AND FAILURES

Starting up a small business is hard enough, as we have already seen, but keeping it going can be even more difficult. Many businesses go through a bad patch and then recover, but this is not just a matter of luck. It is essential for people in business to be adaptable and respond quickly to any changes or trends which are occurring.

Protocol

The most important steps to good business management are to:

1. analyse the company's difficulties and their causes;
2. estimate and keep a close check on 'cash flow' (money coming in and money going out);
3. review costs (and look for cost savings);
4. review your prices (they could be too low or too high);
5. be prepared to make tough decisions and sometimes unpopular decisions.

There is no simple answer to what makes a successful business person. Is it hard work, luck, intelligence, ability or a combination of these factors? Perhaps we think of people in business as being old, conservatively dressed and well educated. In reality however, this is not necessarily the case. Read the newspaper articles and case studies which follow describing how some people started in business and you may be able to draw some conclusions of your own.

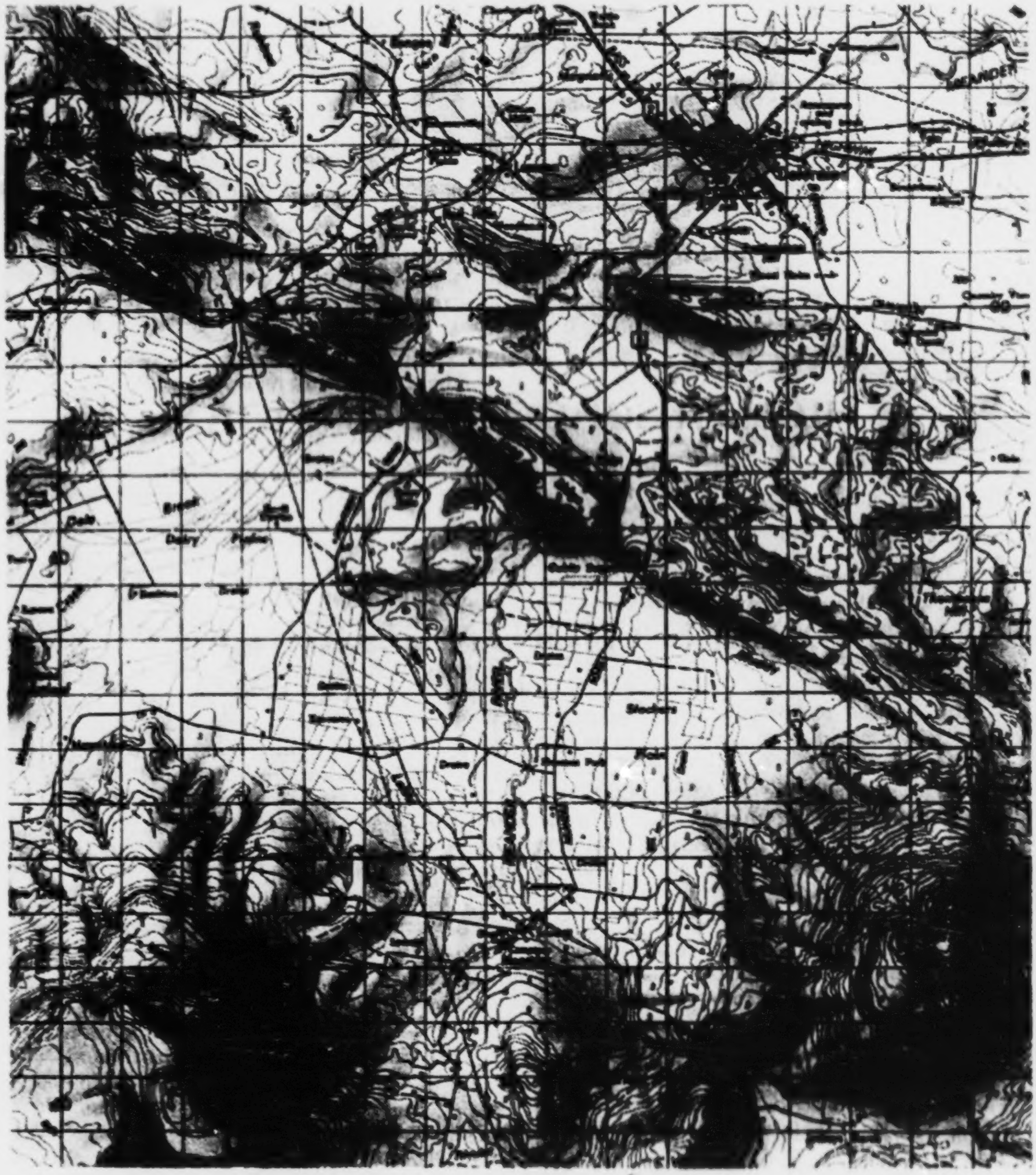
Commerce Two,
B. Parker, T. Clarke, P. Carter 1988

TEXT 7: PROTOCOL (GEOGRAPHY)

Using contour lines

If you look at a topographic map you will see thin brown lines all over it. These are **contour lines**. They show the elevation (or height) of the land. Numbers are found along contours. They give the elevation above sea level. If a contour line has 40 on it, this means that everywhere along that contour line is 40 metres above sea level.

Fig. 2.15 below shows some contours and other features in an area in Tasmania.



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TEXT 7: PROTOCOL (GEOGRAPHY) cont.

Contour lines are a way of showing landforms on a map. Here are some things to remember when looking at contours.

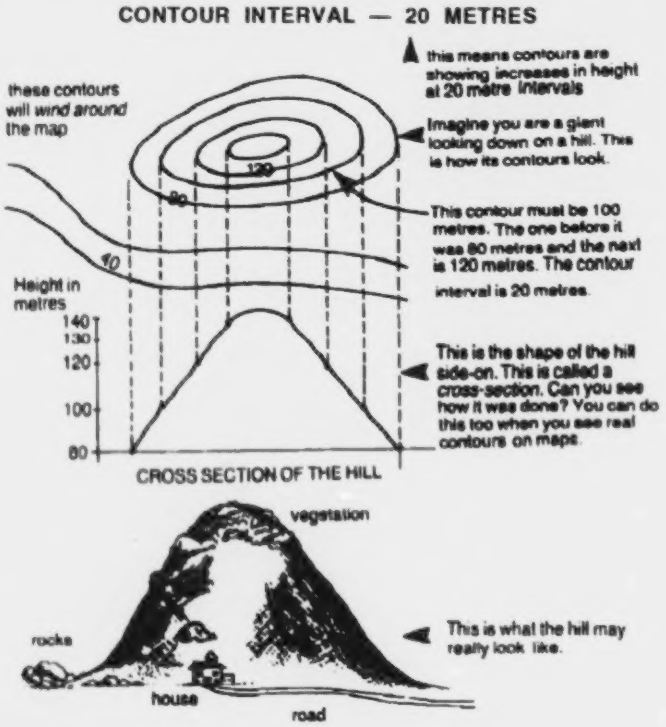
CONTOUR INTERVAL — 20 METRES
this means contours are showing increases in height at 20 metre intervals
these contours will wind around the map
Imagine you are a giant looking down on a hill. This is how its contours look.
120
80
40
This contour must be 100 metres. The one before it was 80 metres and the next is 120 metres. The contour interval is 20 metres.
Height in metres
140
130
120
100
80
This is the shape of the hill side-on. This is called a cross-section. Can you see how it was done? You can do this too when you see real contours on maps.
CROSS SECTION OF THE HILL
vegetation
rocks
house
road
This is what the hill may really look like.

Fig. 2.16 Some features of contours

1. When contour lines are close together (1mm or less on a ruler) there are steep slopes (see Fig. 2.17).
2. When contour lines are far apart the land is flatter or has gentle slopes.
3. Hills appear as roughly circular contours getting smaller with increases in height (see Fig. 2.17a).
4. Ridges 'stretch' the contours out. Some good examples like this are shown on the map, Fig. 2.15. A long ridge appears at area reference 6896. Find this and look at its contour pattern. Fig. 2.17c shows some features of ridges.
5. Plateaus appear as flat-topped mountains. The contours are close together until the top is reached. Because the top is flat there are no contours on top of it (see Fig. 2.17d).
6. Valley contours are closer together on the sides and wider apart on the valley floor where it is flatter. Fig 2.17b shows this.

Questions
Examine the map, Fig 2.15.

1. (a) What landforms shown by the contours can you see?
   (b) Draw and name these locations.
2. Locate the railway and road passing between 'Gardeners Ridge' and 'Needles Ridge'. Give reasons why they were built here.
3. Where the contours are close together there is no settlement. Why?
4. What is the name of the landform where settlement and transport routes are located.
5. Compare the contours on this map Fig 2.17 with those on the Mildura map (Fig. 2.11). What differences can you find?

cont.

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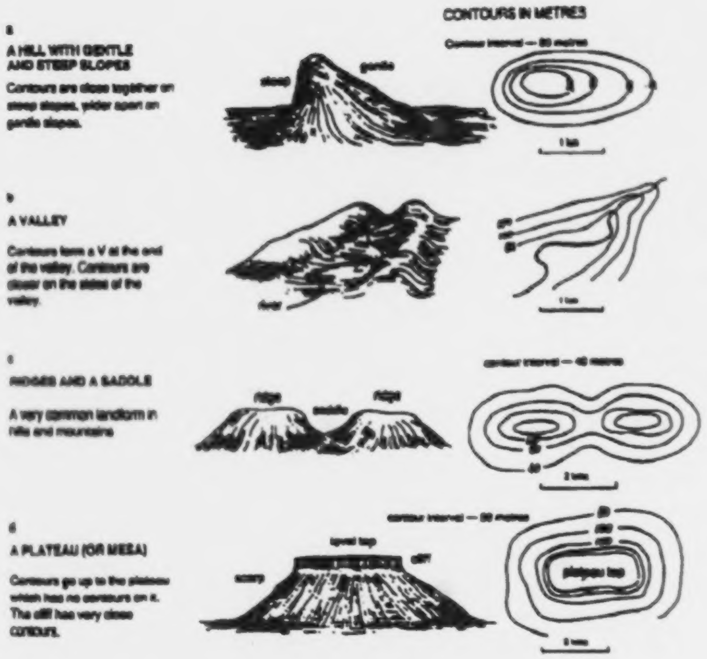
TEXT 7: PROTOCOL (GEOGRAPHY) cont.


CONTOURS IN METRES
Contour interval — 20 metres
steep
gentle
1 km
river
1 km
contour interval — 40 metres
ridge
saddle
ridge
2 kms
contour interval — 20 metres
level top
cliff
scarp
plateau top
2 kms

a

A HILL WITH GENTLE AND STEEP SLOPES

Contours are close together on steep slopes, wider apart on gentle slopes.

b

A VALLEY

Contours form a V at the end of the valley. Contours are closer on the sides of the valley.

c

RIDGES AND A SADDLE

A very common landform in hills and mountains

d

A PLATEAU (OR MESA)

Contours go up to the plateau which has no contours on it. The cliff has very close contours.

Introducing Geography,
S. Weingarth 1986

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TEXT 1A: PROCEDURE (DRAWING) STAGES

Goal

FASTENING DRAWING PAPER TO YOUR DRAWING BOARD

Method

(a) Place the drawing sheet on your drawing board with its smooth side uppermost and a backing sheet behind it.

(b) Press the T square stock firmly against the working edge of the drawing board with your left hand. Move the drawing sheet so that its lower edge rests on the working edge of the T square blade. Both the drawing sheet and the T square are now moved so that the drawing sheet can be located close to the top left hand corner of the drawing board.

(c) Hold the drawing sheet with your left hand and attach the clips with your right hand.

(d) Check with your T square that the drawing sheet has not moved. If there has been some movement pull the appropriate corner of the sheet and check again.

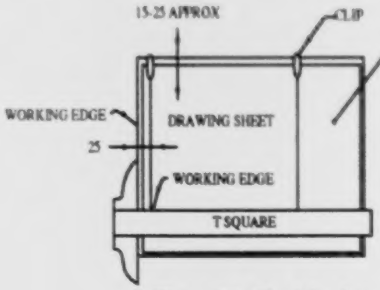


Fig. 4.1 Positioning sheet and fixing clips

Programmed Technical Drawing Book 2, SI Units
R.K. Mullins & D.A. Cooper 1974

TEXT 2A: PROCEDURE (MATERIALS TECHNOLOGY) STAGES

Goal

The procedure for cutting external threads is as follows:

Method

1. To cut the external thread (commonly called screwing), the cylinder should first be prepared to the size of the thread's major diameter.
2. Scale is removed from metal having a scaled surface.
3. The end of the bar is filed flat and square to the axis of the bar.
4. The end of the bar is slightly tapered for about 5mm from the end to aid the die cutting.
5. The die is adjusted oversize and placed on the rod.
6. The die is used in a similar manner to the tap previously described. Pressing down to start, turn clockwise and reverse the die each quarter turn to break the chip.
7. The thread is cut by this process to the required length and the die removed.
8. The thread so formed is tried against the internal thread with which it is to work.
9. The thread will normally be a tight fit and the die will need to be adjusted to a slightly smaller size and the thread recut.
10. The process of testing and adjusting is continued until the threads mate with one another.

Metalwork Part One, Second Edition
B.W. Ableson & A.J. Pateman 1988

TEXT 3A: PROTOCOL (DRAWING) STAGES

Goal

DRAWING HINTS

General Conditions

1. Keep your pencil sharp.
2. Rotate a conical point pencil as you draw a line.
3. Keep your instruments clean and in good working order.
4. Never sharpen a pencil over your drawing board or instruments.
5. Use a backing sheet behind your drawing sheet.
6. The outlines of a drawing, both curved and straight, must be uniform and dark enough to stand out clearly from the paper.
7. The drawing surface be kept clear of instruments that are not in direct use.
8. Place your drawing instruments in an orderly position beside the drawing board when not in use.
9. A piece of paper should be placed under your hand when you are dimensioning or lettering a drawing. (This helps to keep your sheet clean.)
10. All lettering must be made using:
    (a) standard letters
    (b) guide and slope lines.

Programmed Technical Drawing Book 2, S1 Units
R.K. Mullins & D.A. Cooper 1974

TEXT 4A: PROTOCOL (MATERIALS TECHNOLOGY) STAGES

Goal

USE OF SPANNERS

General Conditions

1. Never strike a spanner with a hammer or use a pipe over the handle to increase leverage.
2. Always pull a spanner, don't push it.
3. Always select a snug-fitting spanner.
4. Don't use adjustable spanners unless a fixed jaw spanner is not available.
5. Repair damaged spanner jaws and discard spanners with spread jaws.
6. When using adjustable spanners, place the fixed jaw behind the nut.
7. Make sure there is sufficient room for the spanner to turn in.

Metalwork Part One, Second Edition
B.W. Ableson & A.J. Pateman 1988

TEXT 5A: PROCEDURE (TEXTILES & DESIGN) STAGES

MECHANISMS IN A SEWING MACHINE

Goal How to do it

Method

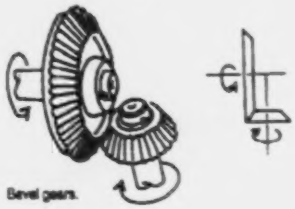
Step 1 Look at your machine and find these features:

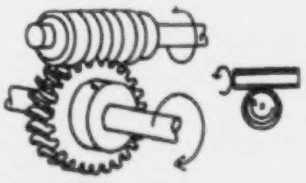
a What type of technology is used in this machine?

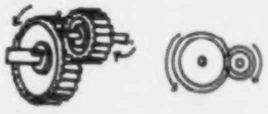
b Where does this energy get fed into the machine?

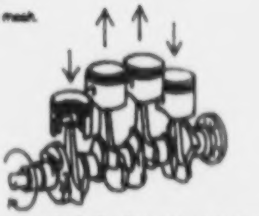
Step 2 On your unlabelled diagram or sketch of your machine, label the type of energy that it uses and where it is fed into the machine.

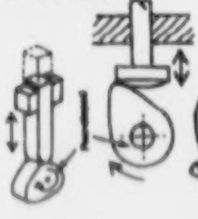
Step 3 Identify the types of mechanical operations used in the domestic sewing machine. In the drawings below you are shown different types of mechanical operations. Each of these situations shows how the parts work as a section (this is called a system).

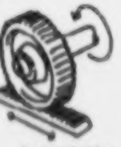

Bevel gears.


Worm and wheels.


Two gears in mesh.


Crank shaft: changing reciprocating motion into roatary motion


Cams and shafts.


Rack and pinion.

cont.

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TEXT 5A: PROCEDURE (TEXTILES & DESIGN) STAGES cont.

Method Cont.	**Step 4**	Look inside the machine (with power off) to see how the different parts work together. This is an example of how many parts make up sections or systems and then work together to make a more complicated (complex) section or system work. On the unlabelled diagram of your machine, identify where similar types of operations to those shown above are used to drive the machine.
	Step 5	On the unlabelled diagram of your machine, show how these simple mechanical systems work together to make the machine operate.
	Step 6	In a sewing machine, there are two main operations which make a stitch form. Identify these two main operations in a sewing machine.
	Step 7	Write these in your folio/folder.
	Step 8	Identify how these two operations work together.
	Step 9	Name the types of mechanisms used in these operations.

Textiles & Design,
T. Hynes & E. Kovesdy 1991

TEXT 6A: PROTOCOL/ARGUMENT (COMMERCE) STAGES

Note:

Commerce typically embeds one genre within another producing a macro-genre. In the following example there is a protocol embedded in an argument. Analyse only the protocol marked.

	SUCCESSES AND FAILURES	
	Starting up a small business is hard enough, as we have already seen, but keeping it going can be even more difficult. Many businesses go through a bad patch and then recover, but this is not just a matter of luck. It is essential for people in business to be adaptable and respond quickly to any changes or trends which are occurring.	**Argument**
Goal	The most important steps to good business management are to:	**Protocol**
General Conditions	1. analyse the company's difficulties and their causes; 2. estimate and keep a close check on 'cash flow' (money coming in and money going out); 3. review costs (and look for cost savings); 4. review your prices (they could be too low or too high); 5. be prepared to make tough decisions and sometimes unpopular decisions	
	There is no simple answer to what makes a successful business person. Is it hard work, luck, intelligence, ability or a combination of these factors? Perhaps we think of people in business as being old, conservatively dressed and well educated. In reality however, this is not necessarily the case. Read the newspaper articles and case studies which follow describing how some people started in business and you may be able to draw some conclusions of your own.	**Argument**
	Commerce Two, P. Barker, T. Clarke, P. Carter 1988	

TEXT 7A: PROTOCOL (GEOGRAPHY) STAGES

Goal

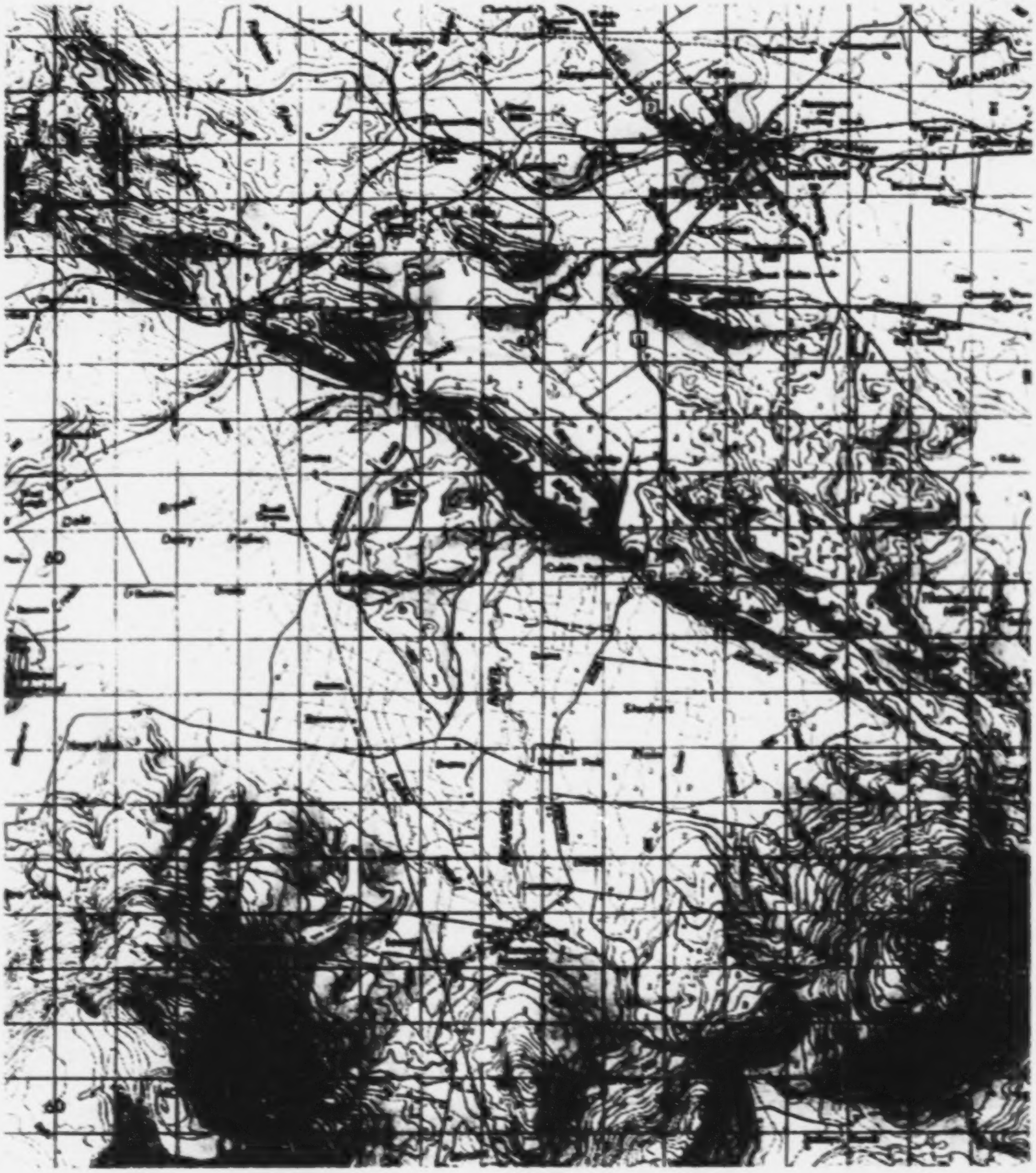
Using contour lines

Protocol

If you look at a topographic map you will see thin brown lines all over it. These are **contour lines**. They show the elevation (or height) of the land. Numbers are found along contours. They give the elevation above sea level. If a contour line has 40 on it, this means that everywhere along that contour line is 40 metres above sea level.

Fig 2.15 below shows some contours and other features in an area in Tasmania.

Report



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TEXT 7A: PROTOCOL (GEOGRAPHY) STAGES cont.

Goal

Contour lines are a way of showing landforms on a map. Here are some things to remember when looking at contours.

Protocol

General Conditions

CONTOUR INTERVAL — 20 METRES

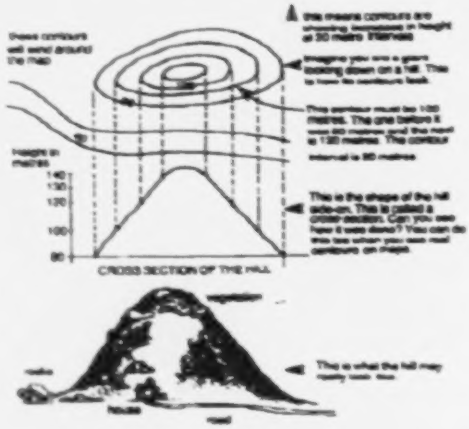

Fig. 2.16 Some features of contours

1. When contour lines are close together (1mm or less on a ruler) there are steep slopes (see Fig. 2.17).
2. When contour lines are far apart the land is flatter or has gentle slopes.
3. Hills appear as roughly circular contours getting smaller with increases in height (see Fig. 2.17a).
4. Ridges 'stretch' the contours out. Some good examples like this are shown on the map, Fig. 2.15. A long ridge appears at area reference 6896. Find this and look at its contour pattern. Fig. 2.17c shows some features of ridges.
5. Plateaus appear as flat-topped mountains. The contours are close together until the top is reached. Because the top is flat there are no contours on top of it (see Fig. 2.17d).
6. Valley contours are closer together on the sides and wider apart on the valley floor where it is flatter. Fig 2.17b shows this.

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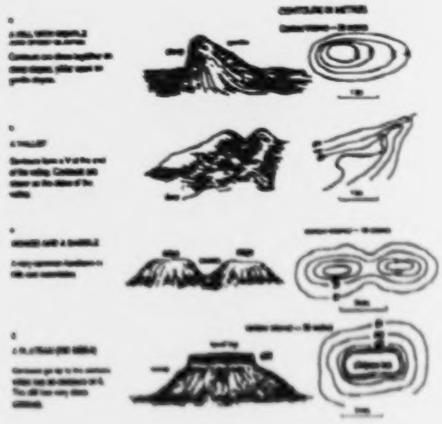
TEXT 7A: PROTOCOL (GEOGRAPHY) STAGES cont.

Questions

Examine the map, Fig 2.15.

1. (a) What landforms shown by the contours can you see?
   (b) Draw and name these locations.
2. Locate the railway and road passing between 'Gardeners Ridge' and 'Needles Ridge'. Give reasons why they were built here.
3. Where the contours are close together there is no settlement. Why?
4. What is the name of the landform where settlement and transport routes are located.
5. Compare the contours on this map (Fig. 2.17) with those on the Mildura map (Fig. 2.11). What differences can you find?



Visuals accompanying the text

Introducing Geography,
S. Weingarth 1986

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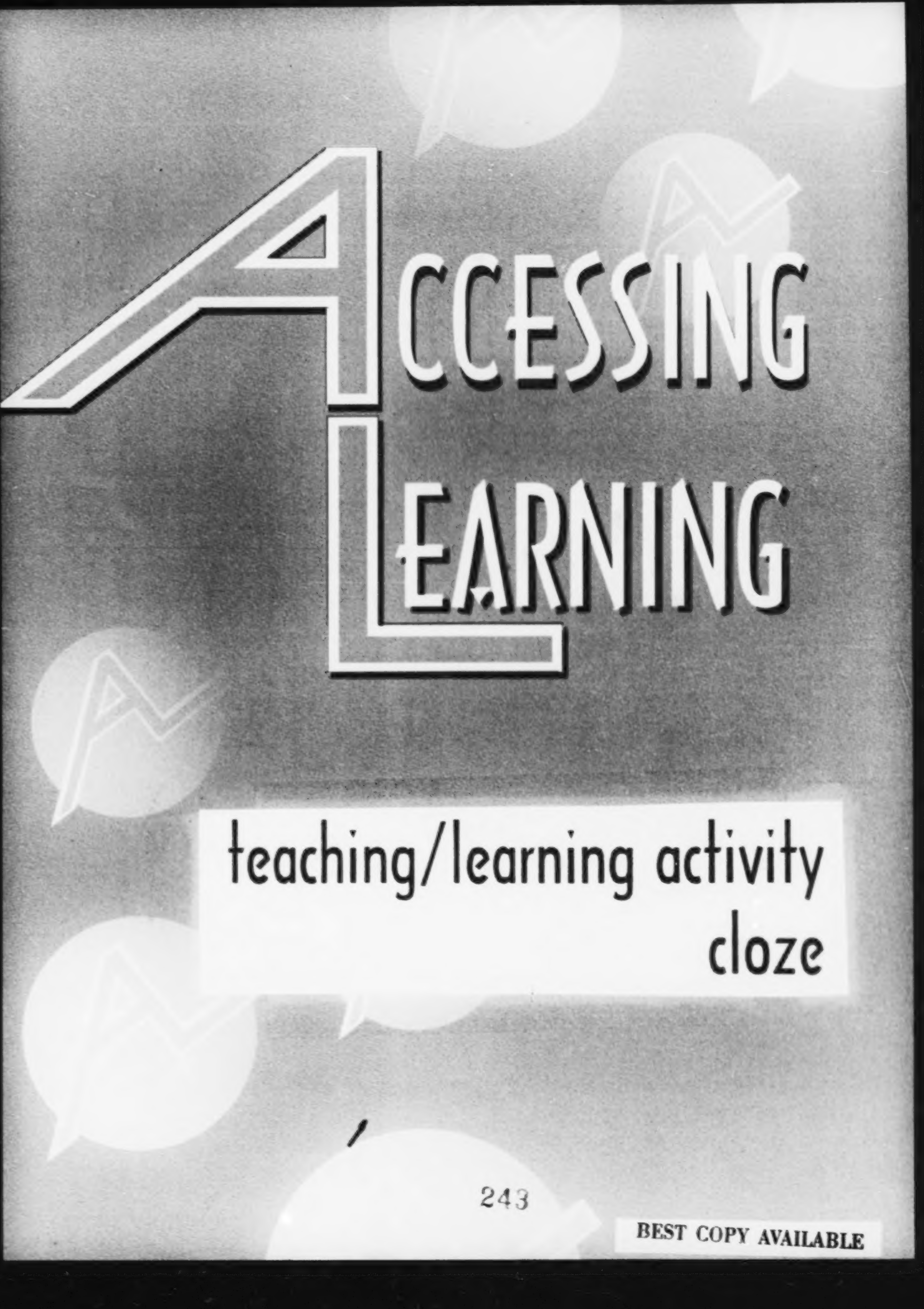

ACCESSING LEARNING

teaching/learning activity
cloze

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CLOZE

Learner Task 1

Workshop Task 1

The Coordinator should lead a group discussion on cloze.

> Read the passage under the heading 'What is cloze?' for an explanation of the cloze procedure.
>
> What do you understand by the term *cloze*?

What is cloze?

The word *cloze* is related to the Gestalt principle of closure which describes the human tendency to complete a familiar but not quite finished visual pattern. So a cloze task is one where the reader is presented with a printed statement from which certain words have been removed. It is the task of the reader to complete the statement by filling each gap with a word considered to be appropriate in the total context of the statement. To generate words which accurately fill the gaps, the reader must be aware of both the meaning and the grammatical constraints of the surrounding words.

CONSTRUCTING A CLOZE

In cloze passages, words may be deleted on the basis of:

Fixed ratio	— words are deleted on a regular basis throughout the text, eg every ninth word. The more often words are omitted, the more difficult the task.
Variable ratio	— words are deleted according to pre-determined criteria, eg content words, grammatical words.
Groups of words	— phrases or sentences are deleted, requiring students to focus on the overall pattern and meaning of the text to replace them.

The decision to omit certain words should be based on the purpose for doing the cloze:

- revising or testing content knowledge;
- highlighting and practising grammatical features, such as reference words, connectives, nominalisation;
- assessing student ability to read about a new topic;

No matter what the primary purpose, students will be reinforcing their knowledge of content by re-reading a cloze passage several times as they complete it.

In report writing nominalisation allows the writer to create a mature-sounding text. (Refer to the Glossary of Language Features for an explanation of nominalisation.) By clozing out nominalisations in a text, the teacher can explore with the students how the process of nominalisation can help them make their writing more written-like. For example:

2

'Man evolved. This process is called **evolution**. The evolutionary process is...'

'Wheat is refined. The refining of wheat... Wheat **refinement....**'

The bold words could be clozed out.

PURPOSES OF CLOZE

Learner Task 2 Compare your ideas with the Commentary on each Text.

Examine the following cloze passages (Texts 1 to 5).
What different purposes could each of them serve?

Workshop Task 2

2 to 2-4

TEXT 1

This text is taken from a Commerce textbook.

Instructions: Complete the passage below using the most appropriate word.

Expenses in owning a car
Registration and third party insurance

Every car driven on a public road must be registered with the appropriate State Government department. The .... must also be covered by third party insurance.

Car registration must be paid every year. The cost of .... depends on the weight of the vehicle and whether it is usually .... in the city or in the country. Cars used for business purposes are............................. expensive to register than cars .... for personal use.

Before a car can be registered, it must be inspected. A mechanic at an authorised .... station must check that the vehicle is .... If the car passes ...., the owner is given a certificate of roadworthiness, called a pink slip. The owner must then obtain a green slip. The pink slip is given, with the registration papers, green slip and the .... to the motor registry. In exchange, the owner gets a registration .... The .... of the sticker shows the year in which it is registered and the .... on the sticker shows to which month in that year it is registered. It is a .... offence to drive an .... vehicle.

The World of Commerce, Book Three, Second Edition,
E.D. Shade & R.C. Gyles, 1988

Commentary

In Text 1 it is the key content words which have been removed. This kind of cloze task could

- assist learning of the new content following reading of the full passage;
- revise past work;
- assess content knowledge (although it may be as much a test of reading skill as a test of knowledge).

TEXT 2

This worksheet provides definitions for a Geography unit on waste management. Students would be asked to complete the sheet, which then provides them with a glossary.

<table>
<tr><td colspan="3">Instructions: Complete the passage below using the most appropriate word.</td></tr>
<tr><td>1. Biodegradable</td><td>is a term</td><td>given to a substance which can be broken down by the natural process of decomposition eg food and paper.</td></tr>
<tr><td>2. Clean fill</td><td></td><td>consisting of clay, soil, crushed rock, and rubble-like inert mineral filling, up to a maximum of 200mm in size.</td></tr>
<tr><td>3.</td><td>is a method</td><td>of recycling any organic materials (materials that are or once were alive).</td></tr>
<tr><td>4. Decomposition</td><td>is a process</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td>5.</td><td>is waste material</td><td>generated by industrial or manufacturing processes.</td></tr>
<tr><td>6. Organic Waste</td><td>is waste</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td>7. Recycling</td><td></td><td>involving the collection and processing of a waste product for use as a raw material in the manufacture of the same product or a similar one.</td></tr>
<tr><td>8.</td><td>is the entire process</td><td>of generation, storage, collection, transportation, treatment and disposal of waste and resource recovery.</td></tr>
</table>

Commentary

Text 2 could be used for the same purposes as Text 1. However, the real strength of this cloze lies in the way it highlights for the students the structure of successful definitions. They need not only the content to complete the cloze, but also grammatical knowledge and an understanding of how definitions are structured. This exercise lends itself more to the modelling phase of the teaching/learning cycle than to assessment.

TEXT 3

The cloze below was developed from a Technological Studies textbook and deals with the procedure for making a bag.

Instructions: Complete the cloze passage below using the words provided.

press
turn down
machine
apply
place
machine
machine
neaten
allow

1. Pin the pattern on the fabric and cut the fabric to the size required on the pattern.

2.. .... design in selected position .... painted designs to dry .... with hot iron to set dye.

3. .... right sides of bag pieces together and pin. .... sides and bottom of bag. Neaten edges with zigzag.

4. .... hem around top opening to make casing for drawstring, eg turn under 0.5cm, then 2 cm hem. Pin.

5. .... around the top edge 0.3 cm from the folded edge. .... around the hem edge, leaving an opening to thread drawstring through.

Commentary

As the words have been given to the students in this cloze, its primary purpose is to reinforce a critical feature in the writing of clear instructions — placing the verb in the position of Theme (first in the sentence) by using the command form.

TEXT 4

This cloze, on account of the importance of water conservation, was developed from a Water Board booklet.

Instructions: Complete the cloze passage below using the words provided.

However
Finally, one of the most important reasons
also
Even though
Therefore
One reason for this is that
Another reason is that
This

Why is it important to save water?

Water plays a big part in our lives. We need water to drink, cook, wash our clothes, keep clean and perhaps water the garden. ...., a lot of water is wasted in all these areas. We need to be more aware of how important it is to save water wherever we can.

.... a severe strain is placed on Sydney's water resources by the city's increasing population and the possibility of a longer term drought. .... water is a renewable resource, it is not infinite. .... we need to be more conscious of conserving the water we have.

.... increased water usage means greater pollution for the environment. By using less water we can reduce the load on our sewage treatment plants. .... will help to reduce sewer overflows.

Pollution is .... reduced by not wasting water on our gardens. Water running off our gardens and lawns carry fertilizers, chemicals, grease, litter, animal dropping etc. into our local bush land, into stormwater drains and water ways and ultimately to the ocean.

.... for water conservation is the environmental benefits this brings. By reducing our water consumption we can defer the building of a new dam, which can have large environmental impacts. Valuable land is flooded and there are major changes to the environment upstream and downstream. Also by reducing the demand we reduce the need to simplify the existing supply network with larger pipes.

Commentary

This text provides an opportunity to practise some of the connectives students will need for their own writing. They have been offered to the students above the text so as to broaden their repertoire rather than to draw on their existing, perhaps limited, range of connectives. They will be revising content knowledge at the same time, reading and re-reading as they evaluate the alternatives. Again this exercise is suited to the modelling phase of a unit and highlights the integrated nature of language and content teaching.

Like Text 2, Text 4 shows that more than one word can be omitted, especially where a group of words serves the function of a single word.

Whole sentences may also be clozed out. For example, the first sentence of each new stage of a text could be omitted to highlight student understanding of the purpose of each stage of the text. This task, however, requires special attention to building up student field knowledge, as well as knowledge of generic stages, so that the task is not too confusing or difficult. Placing the missing sentences below the passage will focus on the purpose rather than distracting students with concerns about the content.

TEXT 5

Instructions: Complete the passage below using the most appropriate word.

Account for how pollutants affect our waterways

Three significant pollutants affecting our waterways are heavy metals, nutrients and chemicals.

Firstly, there are heavy metals such as .... , ... , ... and .... These accumulate in the .... and threaten the health of animals and humans. For example, ... from a factory are dumped into .... Tiny marine organisms may take in some dissolved lead; a school of small fish will each have a mouthful of the organism; a few larger fish will eat several small fish and finally a human being will eat fish and absorb concentrated lead.

Secondly, nutrients such as nitrates and phosphates washed into the waterways from such things as .... and .... encourage the growth of weeds and algae. This blocks waterways and inhibits growth of natural plants.

Chemicals from industrial, rural and commercial sites are another pollutant often emptied into our waterways. These chemicals, for example organochlorin, ... and .... are toxic for plants and animals. They can kill and deform.

Heavy metals, nutrients and chemicals severely impair our environment by polluting our waterways.

Commentary

Text 5 was designed specifically to test content, in this case technical vocabulary. The teacher has provided a text in which relatively few words have been omitted. The aim is to ensure that the students are being tested only on knowledge of the content, and not on skills such as their ability to predict what the writer might have been thinking.

CLOZE FOR ASSESSING READABILITY

Traditionally, cloze has been used to assess the suitability of text books to particular groups of students. To do this a student is given a passage of about 300 words with every fifth word deleted Samples can be selected from different parts of the book, the beginning, the middle and the end. The total number of words deleted should be fifty. Ensure you leave the first and last sentence intact. To score, give two points for each correct answer The scores obtained by the reader indicate the readability of the passage for the student.

> A score of 60% or better is generally accepted as indicating the Independent level.
>
> A score between 40% and 60% represents the Instructional level.
>
> A score below 40% represents the Frustration level.

The Independent level of reading is the level of difficulty suitable for recreational reading; the Instructional level indicates the level of difficulty at which the reader can cope with the teacher's help and the Frustration level, as the name implies, means the level is too difficult for readers to cope with even if they have the assistance of a teacher.

It must be remembered, however, when using cloze for this purpose, to provide students with sufficient context to make the task do-able. As with all cloze texts, evoking appropriate schemata for the students will help to ensure that they are not defeated before they even begin.

Students are often placed in the situation of having to read texts which are at the frustration level, for example, reading primary source documents or carrying out library research. This is an important part of their learning and should be encouraged. However, the reading of difficult texts needs to be supported by:

- demanding simple outcomes from reading;
- pre-reading activities to build up field knowledge;
- guided reading tasks to structure comprehension;
- group support.

The level of accessibility of a text is only one of a number of features that need to be considered when assessing text books. Apart from all the important issues to do with content and syllabus demands, several language issues need to be considered.

In principle, the text should promote the acquisition of knowledge in the same form as is valued by mature writers in the discipline. For example, in Commerce, where students are learning about starting a business and may be asked in an assignment or exam to write an explanation of how businesses are started, it is not helpful to only present information as narrative (eg about John and Jenny starting up their business), because often students will write a similar narrative in the exam or as an assignment, which would not be highly valued. Students need to be taught how to move from writing narratives and recounts into writing in the more generalised and technical genres valued by the discipline.

As we saw in Module Two, textbooks need also to be structured in such a way to make access to information easy for students. For example, taxonomies should be easily obtained from reports; subheadings should guide students accurately as to what will follow, and diagrams should accurately support the written text.

Information must be presented in appropriate genres, using appropriate language features which are not so simplified or non-technical as to deprive the learner of being apprenticed into the field.

Learner Task 3
Resource Sheets on pages 39-41 give completed versions of the clozes.

Go back to the cloze texts. Try completing a selection of them. As you do, list the strategies you were conscious of using to identify the appropriate words.

Workshop Task 3

3

Keep the second part of OHT covered until the participants complete Task 3.

Commentary

Some of the strategies and skills you might have identified are:

- Skimming through the passage to get the gist or overall meaning of the passage before you began.
- Scanning through the passage to see if the missing word had been repeated elsewhere.
- Referring backwards and forwards in the text at a sentence and paragraph level.
- Selecting the most appropriate word for each space.
- Identifying the correct form of the word for each space.

In other words, all the reader's knowledge of the content and of the appropriate language patterns are brought into active use.

These skills may not be as apparent to your students as they were to you. Many students will benefit from open discussion of the strategies which could help them complete the cloze.

In much the same way as with all the other writing tasks suggested in *Accessing Learning*, students will benefit from first being shown what to do, then doing some together and discussing the strategies involved and then finally working independently. By working co-operatively, students will also be encouraged to share the different learning and problem-solving styles that each will bring to the task.

The skimming, scanning and predicting skills practised in the completion of a cloze are invaluable to the students' development of overall reading skills.

POINTS TO REMEMBER

- Have a clear purpose in mind and design the cloze accordingly.
- Provide a meaningful context for the cloze.
- At least the first and last sentences should be left intact to provide a context for the reader.
- Decide whether the students need the support of a list of the omitted words below the text.
- Take the opportunity to provide different clozes to groups of students who may have different needs. Clozes are an efficient way to meet the individual needs of students.
- Don't leave out all the difficult words. Leaving in some of the difficulties supports student understanding.

INTO PRACTICE

In what ways could you use the cloze technique in your classroom?

It is suggested that you next proceed to examining the Classroom Units: The language we use for instructing.

Text 1 Resource Sheet

3 to 3-4

Expenses in owning a car
Registration and third party insurance

Every car driven on a public road must be registered with the appropriate State Government department. The vehicle must also be covered by third party insurance.

Car registration fees must be paid every year. The cost of registration depends on the weight of the vehicle and whether it is usually garaged in the city or in the country. Cars used for business purposes are more expensive to register than cars registered for personal use.

Before a car can be registered, it must be inspected. A mechanic at an authorised service station must check that the vehicle is roadworthy. If the car passes inspection, the owner is given a certificate of roadworthiness, called a pink slip. The owner must then obtain a green slip. The pink slip is given, with the registration papers, green slip and the fee to the motor registry. In exchange, the owner gets a registration sticker. The colour of the sticker shows the year in which it is registered and the number on the sticker shows to which month in that year it is registered. It is a criminal offence to drive an unregistered vehicle.

The World of Commerce, Book Three, Second Edition,
E.D. Shade & R.C. Gyles, 1988

Text 2 Resource Sheet

1. Biodegradable	is a term	given to a substance which can be broken down by the natural process of decomposition eg food and paper.
2. Clean fill	is material	consisting of clay, soil, crushed rock, and rubble-like inert mineral filling, up to a maximum of 200mm in size.
3. Composting	is a method	of recycling any organic materials (materials that are or once were alive).
4. Decomposition	is a process	whereby dead material is broken down and nutrients are put back into the environment.
5. Industrial Waste	is waste material	generated by industrial or manufacturing processes.
6. Organic Waste	is waste	derived from animal or plant materials.
7. Recycling	is a process	involving the collection and processing of a waste product for use as a raw material in the manufacture of the same product or a similar one.
8. Waste Management	is the entire process	of generation, storage, collection, transportation, treatment and disposal of waste and resource recovery.

Text 3 Resource Sheet

1. Pin the pattern on the fabric and cut the fabric to the size required on the pattern.
2. Apply design in selected position.

   Allow painted designs to dry. Press with hot iron to set dye.
3. Place right sides of bag pieces together and pin. Machine sides and bottom of bag. Neaten edges with zigzag.
4. Turn down hem around top opening to make casing for drawstring, eg turn under 0.5cm, then 2 cms hem. Pin.
5. Machine around the top edge 0.3 cm from the folded edge. Machine around the hem edge, leaving an opening to thread drawstring through.

Text 4 Resource Sheet

Why is it important to save water?

Water plays a big part in our lives. We need water to drink, cook, wash our clothes, keep clean and perhaps water the garden. However, a lot of water is wasted in all these areas. We need to be more aware of how important it is to save water wherever we can.

One reason for this is that a severe strain is placed on Sydney's water resources by the city's increasing population and the possibility of a longer term drought. Even though water is a renewable resource, it is not infinite. Therefore we need to be more conscious of conserving the water we have.

Another reason is that increased water usage means greater pollution for the environment. By using less water we can reduce the load on our sewage treatment plants. This will help to reduce sewer overflows.

Pollution is also reduced by not wasting water on our gardens. Water running off our gardens and lawns carry fertilizers, chemicals, grease, litter, animal dropping etc. into our local bush land, into stormwater drains and water ways and ultimately to the ocean.

Finally, one of the most important reasons for water conservation is the environmental benefits this brings. By reducing our water consumption we can defer the building of a new dam, which can have large environmental impacts. Valuable land is flooded and there are major changes to the environment upstream and downstream. Also by reducing the demand we reduce the need to simplify the existing supply network with larger pipes.

Account for how pollutants affect our waterways

Three significant pollutants affecting our waterways are heavy metals, nutrients and chemicals.

Firstly, there are heavy metals such as copper, zinc, lead and arsenic. These accumulate in the food chain and threaten the health of animals and humans. For example, heavy metals from a factory are dumped into waterways. Tiny marine organisms may take in some dissolved lead; a school of small fish will each have a mouthful of the organism; a few larger fish will eat several small fish and finally a human being will eat fish and absorb concentrated lead.

Secondly, nutrients such as nitrates and phosphates washed into the waterways from such things as pesticide spraying and crop fertilizers encourage the growth of weeds and algae. This blocks waterways and inhibits growth of natural plants.

Chemicals from industrial, rural and commercial sites are another pollutant often emptied into our waterways. These chemicals, for example organochlorin, DDT and pesticides are toxic for plants and animals. They can kill and deform.

Heavy metals, nutrients and chemicals severely impair our environment by polluting our waterways.

ACCESSING LEARNING

module seven

LANGUAGE AND LITERACY DEVELOPMENT IN KEY LEARNING AREAS

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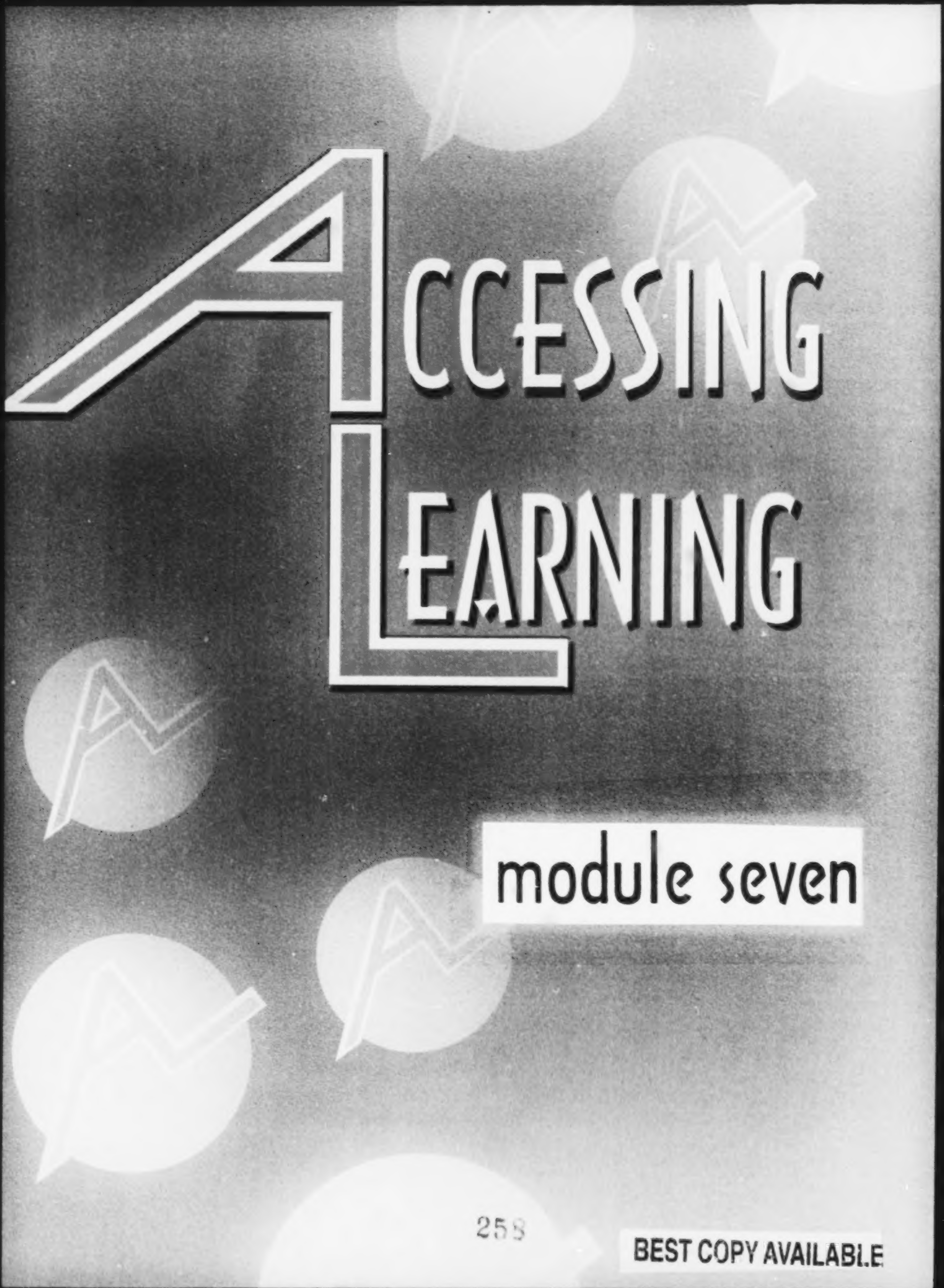

ACCESSING LEARNING

module seven

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ISBN 1 86382 051 5 (The complete kit)
1 86382 052 3 (The Outline and all Modules)
1 86382 053 1 (The Blackline Masters)

Funded through the Literacy and Learning General Element, Commonwealth Department of Employment, Education and Training.

Printed and published by the Catholic Education Office, P.O. Box 217, Leichhardt NSW 2040.
Phone (02) 569 6111 Fax (02) 550 0052

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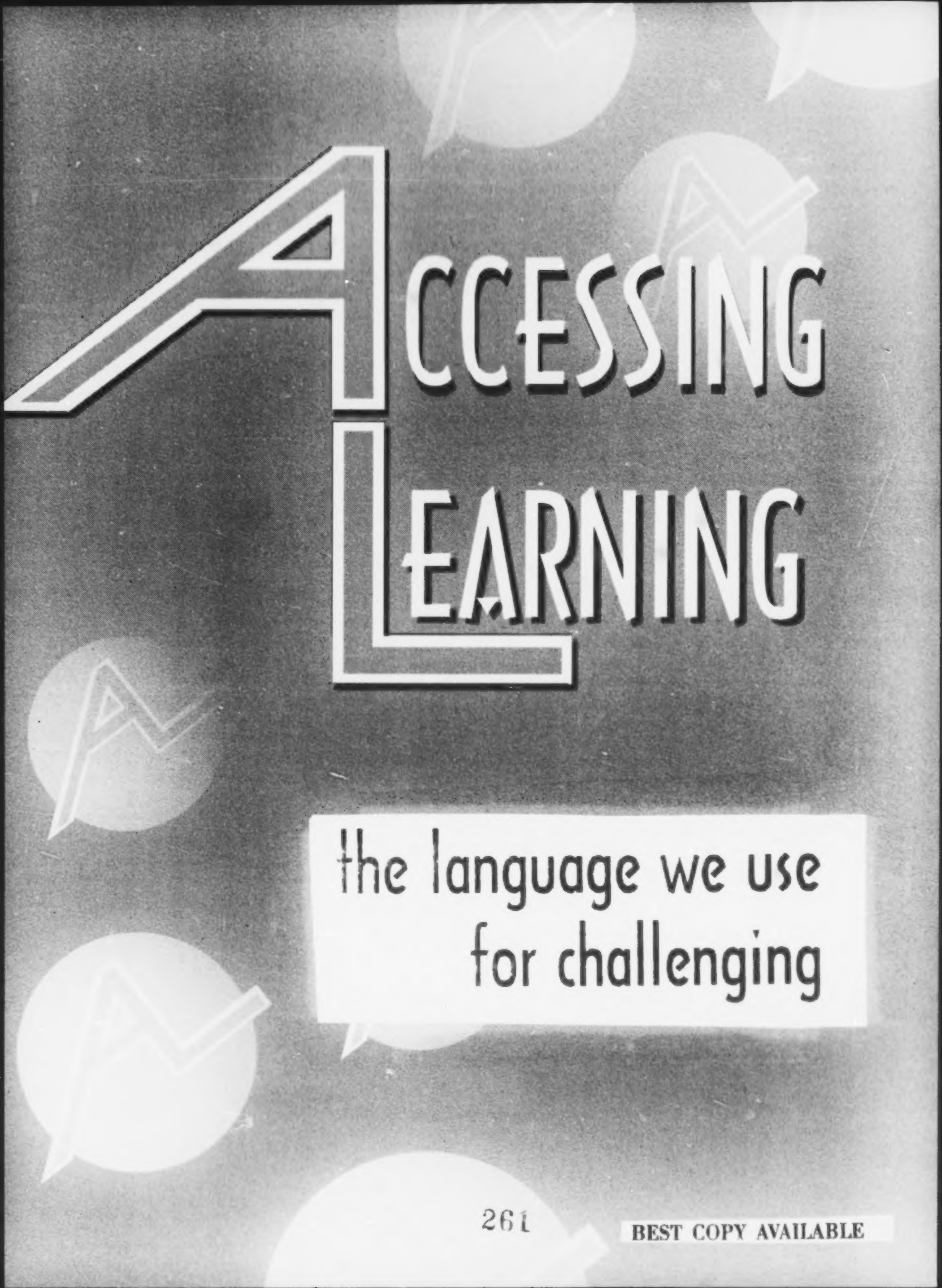

ACCESSING LEARNING

the language we use for challenging

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INTRODUCTION

The language we use for challenging is required at some point in all subjects in the secondary school curricula. It contains the genres of argument and discussion. The main purpose of these genres is to persuade us that something is the case or to persuade us to do something. Using language in these ways means we can analyse, interpret, justify and critically evaluate the world.

Often when students are asked to 'write an essay' what this means is 'present an argument or point of view followed by evidence for why it is valid'. We are used to doing this orally — we argue about or discuss all kinds of things in all kinds of contexts: at home, in the playground, at staff meetings, at dinner parties etc. Presenting a written argument is an important part of academic writing and is also important in job applications, letters of complaint, submissions.

The relationship between spoken arguments and discussions and written ones should be made explicit to students. This means that differences between spoken and written language and how you move from one to the other should be made explicit. Students whose writing is labelled 'childish', 'unsophisticated' or 'not Year 9 standard', often present their arguments in spoken-like language.

In Years 7–10 a great deal of student writing is recounting and reporting, so when students are expected to move into arguing or discussing it is quite a big leap. They often have to 'pick up' the skills of good essay writing in an ad hoc way, or there is the expectation that they learn about it in English classes. The demands of Years 11 and 12 emphasise argument and discussion across subject areas, yet students may still be writing mainly recounts listing a series of events rather than using them as evidence to support a point of view.

By introducing the macro-function challenging to group together arguments and discussions, the focus becomes analysing, rather than presenting, information.

TEXTS

In the following description we highlight characteristic language features of the genres to discuss with your students. When students experience difficulty in either reading or writing in these genres you will be able to use this section to pinpoint the source of difficulty and address it with a shared understanding and metalanguage.

There are seven texts used for working in the genres of this language description. You will find them in two groups, beginning on page 21. First come the original texts, then versions marked 'A' which show division into the genre stages.

List of texts

Text 1: Argument (Drawing) page 21
Text 2: Argument (Materials Technology)
Text 3: Report/Argument (Commerce)
Text 4: Argument (History)
Text 5: Discussion (Commerce)
Text 6: Discussion (Geography)
Text 7: Discussion (Geography)

Text 1A: Argument (Drawing) Stages page 27
Text 2A: Argument (Materials Technology) Stages
Text 3A: Report/Argument (Commerce) Stages
Text 4A: Argument (History) Stages
Text 5A: Discussion (Commerce) Stages
Text 6A: Discussion (Geography) Stages
Text 7A: Discussion (Geography) Stages

ARGUMENT AND DISCUSSION

Learner Task 1

Workshop Task 1

1

1 to 1-5

The working texts are four arguments and three discussions taken from secondary textbooks. Read the one(s) relevant to your subjects and then consider the following:

What is the purpose of this argument/discussion?

Who would read it and why?

How would you divide the text into stages?

What is the purpose of each stage?

PURPOSE OF AN ARGUMENT

The genre of argument is a type of factual writing whose purpose is to persuade or convince. However, because the purpose is to persuade or convince does not mean the writing is non-factual. The genre requires us to justify, argue for or against, or evaluate, and to do this we need to construct a text which has evidence, examples or elaboration of points. If people are to be convinced to believe or do something then the argument must be coherent and logical.

Arguments can be divided into **persuading that** (eg a letter to the editor arguing that there are benefits in recycling) and **persuading to** (eg a letter to the local council suggesting the establishment of a recycling depot in your suburb).

Arguments in the Key Learning Area Technology and Applied Studies function to convince students that some type of action/behaviour is necessary (persuading to), for example to be safe in a workshop. This means that students read this kind of text rather than being asked to reproduce it in writing. This genre plays a minor role in the overall organisation of subjects in this Key Learning Area, but it is still important, especially in relation to safety. As the orientation is towards action, the argument emphasises why you should **do** something rather than why something **is** or **should be**. Students do, however, need to be able to write an argument which evaluates their design at the end of their work in Design and Technology.

Arguments in Commerce serve a similar function to those in technology subjects, namely, to justify a course of action. They also sometimes justify the study of the subjects, for example 'why businesses succeed' — the implication being that it is important to know reasons, so that you too can be successful, or recognise why businesses succeed or fail in the real world.

Argument in History is often more obvious, or closer to what our everyday view of argument is, that is, convincing someone of the validity of a particular viewpoint when something controversial or problematic is being dealt with.

STAGES OF AN ARGUMENT

Arguments focus on an issue and present a point of view. The structure of a written argument is usually described as 'introduction, followed by body, followed by conclusion'. Although this is not incorrect, it is just another way of saying beginning, middle and end. All coherent texts have some kind of beginning, middle and end. For the structure of texts to be more meaningful to students, the names of the stages should indicate what the purpose or function of that stage is.

Thesis

The first stage of an argument is the Thesis. The Thesis is a statement of the writer's position or point of view on an issue or topic.

Preview of arguments

This is an optional stage which identifies or previews the arguments which will follow to support the writer's point of view.

Arguments

The major part of the argument follows. There is often more than one point of Argument, with supporting evidence or elaboration. Therefore this stage might be described as:

Argument 1: point ^ elaboration
Argument 2: point ^ elaboration, and so on.

Each of the Arguments should clearly support the Thesis in the first stage.

Conclusion

The final stage is the Conclusion where the writer sums up the Arguments and reiterates and reaffirms the Thesis.

Summary of stages

The generic structure or staging of arguments can be presented as:

Thesis ^ (Preview of arguments) ^ Argument(s) ^ Conclusion

The symbol ^ means 'followed by'.
Brackets () indicate an optional stage.

2

PURPOSE OF A DISCUSSION

Discussions are very similar to arguments. Their purpose is also to persuade or convince, but what characterises discussions is that both sides of an argument are presented before a conclusion is reached or a recommendation is made based on the weight of evidence in the argument(s). Most of what had been said about argument is also relevant to discussion.

Discussion is a very important genre in the school context especially in Years 11 and 12 when students are preparing for the Higher School Certificate. Very often writing an essay means writing a discussion.

Too often the instruction 'write an essay' is left at that, and there may be little explicit teaching regarding what constitutes different kinds of essays or how essays differ between subjects. Students have to work out for themselves the differences in what is satisfactory and valued in different subjects.

It is in the Key Learning Area of Human Society and its Environment that discussions are central, in the subjects of Commerce and History in particular, rather than in Technological and Applied Studies subjects.

STAGES OF A DISCUSSION

Discussions focus on an issue and present more than one point of view before coming to a conclusion.

Thesis

The first stage of a discussion is the Thesis. This stage is a statement of the thesis or issue on which the text will focus. In Text 5 both the title and the first sentence present the Thesis.

Preview of Issues

As with arguments, this is an optional stage of discussion. Its purpose is to present a preview or identification of the issues, that is, the arguments for and against, that the rest of the text will develop. In Text 5 the rest of the first paragraph then goes on to preview the issues involved in going into business.

Arguments for

The next stage of a discussion is presenting arguments for one point of view. The Text 5 discussion now gives various reasons people have given for going into business. In this text the reasons are a series of direct quotes from a variety of people which are not elaborated, eg *I had this great idea and I wanted to try it out.*

Arguments against

A discussion continues with opposing arguments. In Text 5 the Arguments against setting up a business are introduced by *We must remember, though, that many businesses fail.* The discussion goes on to express reasons people have given for not going into business — again with a series of unelaborated direct quotes, eg *I enjoy the security of working for wages.*

In a discussion, Arguments for a point of view can all be presented together, and then Arguments against will all follow in the next stage. Choosing this logical structure will bring together all the Arguments for, so that the listener/reader is able to get a full picture of one side of the argument, followed by a detailed picture of the other side. This is the structure in the example Text 5. This way of structuring the stages in a discussion usually deals with related Arguments for and against a point.

A second way of structuring a discussion involves putting the Arguments for and against in logical pairs and then presenting them one pair after the other: for, against; for, against; for, against. For example, in Text 5 the writer could have linked *I was sick of working for wages* with *I enjoy the security of working for wages.*

In the Geography cycle, the teacher establishes these two ways of structuring a discussion essay. Together teacher and students choose which structure they will follow and set about answering the question.

Recommendation

The final stage of a discussion shows that the evidence for and against has been sifted and weighed and a conclusion reached on one or other side — a recommendation. In an argument, the final stage — the Conclusion — is a kind of reaffirmation of the Thesis, saying something like 'Given all the evidence I have presented above, you can say again, with more validity, what I suggested in the opening'. In a discussion, the special kind of Conclusion — the Recommendation — has been arrived at following analysis of the arguments presented.

Text 5: *Why do People go into Business?* does not have an explicit recommendation because it is being left to the student/reader to weigh up the arguments.

Summary of stages

The generic structure or staging of discussions can be presented generally as:

Thesis ^ (Preview of Issues) ^ Argument(s) for ^ Argument(s) against ^ Recommendation

The symbol ^ means 'followed by'.
Brackets () indicate optional stages.

This generic structure can be further elaborated:

A. Thesis ^ Preview of Issue ^ Argument for and Elaboration ^ Argument for and Elaboration ^ Argument against and Elaboration ^Argument against and Elaboration ^ Recommendation

or

B. Thesis ^ Preview of Issue ^ Argument for and Elaboration ^ Argument against and Elaboration ^ Argument for and Elaboration ^ Argument against and Elaboration ^ Recommendation

EVALUATIVE WRITING IN DESIGN AND TECHNOLOGY

Design and Technology uses evaluative writing in a particular way. In a design folio, evaluation plays the role of assessing such things as the suitability of materials and the success of the design project.

Evaluating the suitability of materials

The first step in evaluating materials is to conduct practical experiments on all the materials being considered. The writing up of these results will be in the form of a report, similar to that of a science experiment. The staging would appear as:

3

2

Aim ^ Apparatus ^ Method ^ Observations and Results ^ Conclusion

The second step is to collate the conclusions contained in the report and use this information in a piece of writing that evaluates the suitability of the materials for making the design.

An example of an evaluation of suitable metals for a barbecue utensil follows.

Title	Evaluation of suitable metals for a barbecue utensil
Thesis	Materials tested: mild steel, copper, brass and aluminium. Which metal has the properties of low heat conductivity, high corrosion resistance, and malleability?
Heat conductivity Test 1	Heat conductivity was tested by heating an equal weight of each metal attached to a fixed paper clip by a piece of wax.
Result 1	The copper fell off the paper clip first, followed by the aluminium, steel and finally the brass.
Corrosion resistance Test 2	Corrosion resistance was tested by placing each test piece on cotton balls moistened with water.
Result 2	After two hours the metals were observed. The mild steel had rusted significantly with the copper and aluminium showing high oxidisation and the brass not changing.
Malleability Test 3	Malleability was tested by hitting each piece of metal with a hammer dropped from a fixed height.
Result 3	The aluminium was the softest metal followed by copper, brass and finally steel.
Conclusion	Testing the properties of heat conductivity, corrosion resistance, and malleability shows that brass is the most suitable metal for making a barbecue utensil.

The language of this type of evaluative writing is impersonal, with technical language highlighted.

Evaluating the design product

Another type of evaluative writing is the final evaluation in which the student looks back at the design brief and design considerations, and evaluates the success of the project. The staging of this type of writing follows a similar pattern to a discussion.

The evaluation would begin with a Thesis which would establish the successes and weaknesses of the project.

Next may follow a Preview of these successes and weaknesses.

The body of the text would then follow a pattern of listing the success (arguments for) and shortcomings (arguments against) of the product. Some elaboration may be included.

Finally, the writing should include a Recommendation stage in which the student draws together the conclusions from the previous stages.

Thesis ^ **Preview** ^ **Arguments for** (successes) ^ **Arguments against** (shortcomings) ^ **Recommendations**

Learner Task 2

Now that you have information on the purpose and structure of arguments and discussions, go back to the questions in Task 1 and reconsider your answers.

See the 'A' versions of the texts for their division into stages.

Workshop Task 2

3 to 3-5

Commentary

Text 1 sets up four objectives and then elaborates on each, providing arguments as to why each feature is important in drawing.

Coordinator to direct participants and reshow OHT 1.

Text 2 from Materials Technology is organised around why one should be safe in a workshop. It is important to note that Texts 1 and 2 do not have a Conclusion summing up the Arguments because of their location. Their overall function near the beginning of the textbook leads into the next section rather than to a Conclusion.

In Text 3 from Commerce, the *why* question in the title predicts an argument, but the following text is mostly report-oriented. However, at the end (the last five sentences) the text switches to answering the question. The text is something of a generic blend and represents a small move into macro-genres (texts consisting of combinations of two or more genres; see Introduction to the Language Description: Module Two). The main purpose of this text appears to be initiating a movement from an everyday view of business to a more technical one. In doing this it sets up some technical terms *(business, specialisation, exchange)* and establishes relationships between them, as is done in reports.

Text 4 from History is organised around the thesis that wars aren't all bad (which is implicitly stated). The Arguments which follow are presented in quite a dense, abstract way and so the writing is reflective and a long way from the action it focuses on. It differs from an account (Module Six) in that it attempts to persuade the reader to adopt a particular point of view (ie persuading that).

The *why* question at the beginning of Text 5 seems to predict an Argument (as did Text 3, also from Commerce), that is, reasons people might go into business. It evolves into a discussion by talking about why people do not go into business. However, it also exhibits a number of features of a report. We find a classification of types of people (people who decide to go into business and people who don't want to go into business).

The text also introduces a new technical term *profit*. The report-like section of the text sets out the Field, which is then discussed. The report provides the information which serves as a basis for the discussion which follows.

Text 5 is classified as a discussion because it presents points about both sides of a question. It appears to be even handed by not supporting one side or the other in a conclusion. However, the text does appear to adopt a position with people who decide to go into business being assigned positive attributes (see Text 3). Thus the underlying message of the text is a subtle one. (See Teaching/Learning Activity: Module Seven: Critical Literacy.)

This text represents a beginnings of the move into macro-genres found in senior secondary and tertiary education. (A macro-genre is a text which is made up of more than one genre.) Students need to be taught how to decide what the real social purpose of a text is in order both to read it satisfactorily and to reproduce a similar type of text in writing when called on. When texts are composed of two or more genres, it is often difficult to get the reading and/or the writing correct (see Conclusion: Module Eight).

Text 6 is problematic as a discussion essay for a number of reasons. The text begins with a Thesis and launches straight into the body of the essay (the Arguments) without attempting to preview the issues.

The Arguments themselves are a mixture of individual comments represented in the bubbles, and written text at the end. This is an unusual technique, the purpose of which appears to be to add variety to the reading and engage student interest. Finally, there is no final stage to the discussion (Recommendation). The reader is left to answer questions on the text and be involved in class activities where the issues are discussed orally. This omission of the Recommendation stage appears to be common in textbooks, leaving student unclear as to the final message, and making it harder for them to learn how to draw on the preceding Arguments when learning to write a Recommendation of their own.

Text 7 is only an introduction to a discussion essay. It contains a Thesis and Preview of issues. The Arguments and Recommendation are not developed in the written text. As in Text 6, this text requires students to interpret a graph and use the information to discuss the development of the issues orally in class.

It is important to provide reading materials in the discussion genre at junior secondary level because we expect students to be able to write in it by Year 10.

LANGUAGE FEATURES

Learner Task 3

Workshop Task 3

4

4

Look at the pairs of sentences below. In each pair the first sentence is more spoken-like than the second. The table *Spoken-like becomes written-like* examines the differences.

Describe what has changed to move the sentences from spoken-like to written-like.

Commerce

1. We must remember, though, that many businesses fail.
2. Consideration must be given to the failure of many businesses.

History

1. Wars cost a lot. They kill and destroy and waste resources but they also change the use of industry and technology.
2. Wars are costly exercises. They cause death and destruction and put resources to non-productive uses but they also promote industrial and technological change.

Materials Technology

1. We should obey the rules for being safe in the work shop.
2. It is important that people obey the safety regulations set down in the workshop.

Spoken-like becomes	**Written-like**
Commerce	
we must remember	consideration must
many businesses fail	the failure of many businesses
History	
cost a lot	are costly exercises
and (they) kill	and death
they destroy	they cause destruction
and (they) waste resources	and put resources to non-productive uses
they change the use of industry and technology	industrial and technological change
Materials Technology	
we should obey the rules for being safe	It is important that people obey the safety regulations set down

5

5

The verbs in the spoken-like text are expressed as noun groups in the written-like text. This means for example, the action *destroy* has been turned into a thing, *destruction*. It is through this means that writing is made more mature or more abstract. Turning verbs into things (nominalisation) has been explained earlier in this course and is a common resource used in factual writing. (Refer to the Glossary of Language Features in Module Two for an explanation of nominalisation.)

Note that both Texts 1 and 2 contain a great deal of nominalisation (in strong contrast to most of the other texts in these subjects). In Text 1 nominalisation in the headings (except *speed*) is unpacked for the reader in the subsequent paragraphs:

legibility → *legible*

neatness → *neat*

accuracy → *accurate*

In arguments and discussions, whether to do with reading safety procedures or writing essays, nominalisation could easily get in the way of the message. Given the importance of these genres, nominalisation should be thoroughly taught so students can grasp ideas and/or write similar texts.

Often, the more technical a subject is, the more abstract and distanced the language becomes, often being highly nominalised and impersonal.

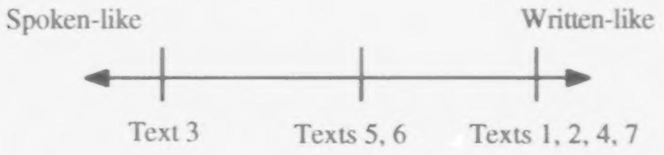
Interestingly, the spoken-like version in the Commerce example is an extract from the textbook. This more spoken-like style of writing is becoming increasingly common in current textbooks. It is assumed that this style of writing is more user-friendly and therefore makes the content more accessible for students. However, it must be realised that students will reproduce this type of spoken-like writing if that is the model with which they are presented. This is especially so because the spoken language of the classroom lesson backs it up. This type of writing is usually not appropriate for successful academic writing. Students are being denied access to the more valued written forms if they are not being supported to move beyond spoken-like language use. It is the more written-like version from a History textbook, Text 4, that models more appropriate (highly valued) language choices, but it may need initial support from teachers for students to be able to fully understand the more abstract language patterns.

If writing in a more spoken-like style is encouraged in one subject but not in another, students without the knowledge required to control the difference are being set up to fail.

In the Discussion Text 5 from Commerce, the move from written text to quoted speech represents a shift within the text. This shift represents a movement from the general to the specific, although the actual individuals are still representatives of classes of individuals, not specific people (ie they cannot be identified). Students would need to be aware of the purpose of this shift — to exemplify reasons for either going into or not going into business — rather than getting caught up in what individual people think or do.

Text 5 falls somewhere between the argument/report Text 3 which is very spoken-like, and the argument Text 4 which is very written-like.

If the Argument and Discussion texts in this module were plotted on a continuum from spoken-like to written-like texts they would appear as follows:



6

Learner Task 4

Workshop Task 4

7

Look at the texts relevant to your subject and answer the following questions:

1. Does the text give general information about people/things/events or does it discuss particular people/things/events?
2. Are there expressions of attitude or feelings? If so, note a few examples.
3. Are there technical terms? How are these defined and classified?
4. What kinds of words link ideas together?

Commentary

1. The participants are mostly generalised and non-human *(rules, business, war)* although they can be also human *(technical drawing students, people)*. There are some examples of particular participants in the Commerce Texts 3 and 5 where typical comments are made, eg *I wanted to work for myself rather than for a boss*. In Text 2, *Mr Safety* appears; however, this personalised type of writing although increasingly common in textbooks (considered more user-friendly) is not the type of writing considered typical of or valued in an argument/discussion.

2. There are expressions of attitude or feelings in each of the texts. This is achieved through the word choice and the use of modality (eg can, should, would).

   Text 1 is an impersonal text, characterised by passive voice and mostly neutral word choice and technical words. It is the use of modality in this text that reveals attitudes, eg *it should be clear and legible, it must be clean and neat, a drawing must convey...* The text suggests that these attitudes are important for technical drawing students.

   Text 2 uses attitudinal words and phrases such as *responsibility, safe attitude, potentially dangerous situations, it is important that people obey safety rules* to emphasise the importance of safety in the workshop.

   Text 3 is neutral. Its primary purpose is to establish technical words and to impersonally state the reasons businesses exist. As it is not a true argument, in the sense that it is a macro-genre (a report blended with an argument) and is dealing with an impersonal topic, it is appropriate that no expression of attitude or feeling is evident.

   Text 4 contains numerous examples of attitudinal words and phrases typical of an argument text in History, for example, *costly, death and destruction, non-productive, useful developments, encouraged the restructuring, inadequacies in Australia.*

The Commerce Text 5 provides some expressions of attitude to going into business through the typical comments of people: *sick of working for wages, I enjoy the security, It didn't work*. There is some limited use of modality: *I would prefer, I'd rather work, I don't really have*. This text is not concerned with establishing technical terms as is Text 3 (Commerce) but rather with establishing arguments for why people go into business. This is appropriate since the purpose of the discussion essay is to sway the reader to a particular point of view.

Text 6 has very similar purpose to Text 5. It is concerned with presenting both sides of the discussion. The quotations from people uses modality *(should be, can be, should not be, to take a stand)*. These quotations also effectively use the Theme (first) position in the sentence to draw the reader's attention to the argument. The second half of the text also uses attitudinal words *(problems, ensuring, risk, and appreciate)* to highlight the importance of the issues.

Text 7, the preview of issues, also uses modality *(can support*, and *should be admitted)* to highlight the controversial nature of the issues.

3. Technical terms are evident in Text 1, which establishes objectives for students of technical drawing and Text 3, which defines a business and how it operates.

4. Connectives of reason and result are predominantly used in argument/discussion texts *(since, if* and *but)*. In Text 4, there is an implicit use of sequencing connectives in the argument as well as explicit connectives such as *further, also* and *after*.

Summary of language features

Arguments and discussions share common language features:

8

6

- The participants are generalised; mostly they are abstract *(rules, business, wars)* although they can also be human *(technical drawing students, people)*.
- Use of passive voice to depersonalise text. (Refer to the Glossary of Language Features in Module Two for an explanation of the passive voice.)
- Connectives of reason and result *(because, so)*. A logical line of argument is represented with sequencing connectives *(firstly, secondly)*.
- Use of technical, abstract terms *(business)*.
- Use of modality *(probably, must)* to soften a point of view or take a stand.

- Use of emotive words to sway the reader *(destruction, inadequacies).*

- Mainly present tense with a mixture of verb types when presenting a point of view.

Working with the language features

Learner Task 5

Workshop Task 5

9

Refer participants to Handout 1.

Look at the following noun groups from Text 4.

1. *The enlargement of Australia's steel-making capacity, and of chemicals, rubber, metal goods and motor vehicles ...*
2. *... something of a hot-house for technological progress and economic change.*
3. *... inadequacies in Australia's scientific and research capabilities.*

The author uses noun groups to pack a number of ideas into a single clause. Rewrite (unpack) each of these noun groups, as you might with students to help them with their reading.

Refer to the Glossary of Language Features in Module Two for an explanation of noun groups.

Commentary

10

Ways of unpacking the sentences would be:

1. Australia was capable of making steel, chemicals, rubber, metal goods and motor vehicles. This capacity grew and became larger.
2. Change was made in economics and progress was made in technology, and these two were expanding rapidly.
3. Australia had capabilities in Science and in research, but they were not good enough.

Noun groups are an important feature of the language used in presenting information in the school context. As can be seen from the above examples, unpacking the many ideas they contain is not always obvious or easy for students. They often miss some of the detailed information built into noun groups, and can fail to understand the relationships between words which have been hidden by the choice of a noun group as opposed to a more lengthy spoken-like structure where all those relationships are spelt out.

Learner Task 6

> Rewrite Text 3 to make it sound more written-like. When you use noun groups, try to use Theme position (thematisation). For example:
>
> *Starting a Business* becomes 'The Establishment of a Business' (Nominalisation)
>
> *Why do businesses exist?* become 'Reasons for the existence of businesses' (Nominalisation)

Workshop Task 6
7

Commentary

The process which follows is the transformation of Text 3 from a spoken-like to a written-like text.

11 and 12

8 to 8-1

Starting a business
The establishment of a business
(*nominalisation*)

Why do businesses exist?
Reasons for the existence of businesses
(*nominalisation*)

We often hear the word business in our everyday lives
The word business is commonly used
(*thematisation*)

We hear of people who 'go into business', people who 'run a business', people who 'sell their business' or even people who 'go out of business'.

People who go into business, run a business, sell
(*thematisation*)
their business, go out of business are often discussed.
(*thematisation*)

What then is a business?
Definition of a business
(*nominalisation*)

We may regard a business as an organisation which operates to satisfy people's wants.
A business is an organisation which operates to
(*Thematisation*) (*non-human participants*)
satisfy wants.

We already know that people have wants and in a commercial economy these wants are satisfied by specialisation and exchange.
These wants are satisfied in a commercial economy by
(*thematisation*)
specialisation and exchange.
(*nominalisation*)

This means that we specialise in a particular occupation and earn money which we exchange for the goods and services we want.

This specialisation in a particular occupation earns
(*thematisation, nominalisation*)
money which is exchanged for the goods and
(*passive voice*)
services which are wanted.

We rely on each other to produce these goods and services and distribute them to the people who want them.

The members of a community rely on each other to
(*generalised participants*)
produce and distribute these goods and services

There is an important link therefore between producers (those who provide the goods and services) and consumers (those who use the goods and services).

thus creating an important link between producers
(*connecting device*)
(those who provide the goods and services) and consumers (those who use the goods and services).

Businesses exist to help in the process of satisfying people's wants. Businesses exist to supply people with such things as food, clothing, housing, electrical goods, medical care, legal services, luxury goods and entertainment.

Businesses exist to help in the satisfaction of wants
(*nominalisation*)
and supply of such things as food, clothing, housing, electrical goods, medical care, legal services, luxury goods and entertainment.

In the original text there is a mixture of action verbs (what businesses do) and relational verbs (what businesses are). The text is self-contained, its reference patterns do not require the reader to leave the text and go to the context to identify things as a spoken text would. The text also uses general participants, it refers to *producers* and *businesses* as classes of things, not as individual entities. Tense is for the most part simple present *(exist, rely, is, provide)*. This fits with the general participants, as the text is intended to apply to all cases and is not set in any particular time.

To change the style of the text, one of the main changes is to make it less personal — to get rid of *we*. Note that *we* begins almost every sentence; it is thematised. By doing this, the writer has lessened the distance between reader and writer. Yet, as discussed in the previous paragraph, the other participants in the text are general — *producers* and *business*.

Therefore, by recognising that the text is really not a personal one — it is a general argument and report — it is not difficult to change the personal, human participant *we* to either a more impersonal participant, eg *people* or non-human ones like *business, wants*. This often also means moving from the active to the passive voice, and an increase in relational (being) verbs, as can be seen in the rewritten text.

This is not to argue that one way of writing is more correct or better than another, but rather that it is essential to have knowledge and skills to move from one to the other, and to be able to make choices depending on the writing task.

If you look again at the Drawing, Materials Technology and History texts you will see how they are grammatically intricate and abstract. They are heavily nominalised and in History the arguments centre on the nominalisations: *destruction, restructuring, production.*

In addition, these nominalisations are often expressed in complex noun groups: *industrial and technological change, the restructuring of the Australian economy, inadequacies in Australia's scientific and research capabilities.*

In terms of its grammar, this text is a long way from the events it discusses. It needs quite a sophisticated unpacking of meaning to comprehend it, and an equally sophisticated command of the resources of language to reproduce a similar text.

Learner Task 7

Throughout this course a range of language resources has been explored. The ability to control these resources helps writers to achieve their purpose. List the language resources which would enable students to read more successfully and to create or edit their own writing to make it more appropriate.

Workshop Task 7

13

Commentary

There are a number of linguistic resources which would enable students to read more successfully and write more appropriately. They include ability to recognise and use:

Reference and cohesion;

Given/New structures;

Thematisation;

Noun groups;

Passive voice;

Technical language;

Generalised language;

Action and relational verbs.

CONCLUSION

The discussion and arguments from Commerce textbooks serve the same function as those in the textbooks of the technology subjects, namely to justify either the study of the subject or the practices of the subject. They do not as a rule deal with controversial issues within the subject.

Argument in History and Geography is organised around trying to convince the reader of the validity of a particular viewpoint. It deals with things that are being presented as problematic in some way.

Students are increasingly required to write using the genres of challenging as they progress through their schooling. Moving from the report and recount genres through to using information to present or argue a case requires explicit knowledge about the generic stages and the language features which make a piece of writing achieve its purpose.

Success in the domain of formal school assessment often depends on the ability of students to take content knowledge and present it effectively in a one-sided argument or a two-sided discussion essay.

It is suggested that you next complete the Teaching/Learning Activity: Critical Literacy before viewing Video 3 and progressing to the Classroom Unit for your subject.

There are parts of the Classroom Units for the macro-function challenging for each subject.

TEXT 1: ARGUMENT (DRAWING)

1 to 1-5

> **Drawing Objectives**
>
> Technical Drawing is not only a way of communicating ideas but is also an essential part of any design process. Four important objectives should be kept in mind by technical drawing students.
>
> 1. Legibility
>   Since each drawing is a means of communicating it should be clear and legible. Particular care should be taken with details such as lettering and dimension.
> 2. Neatness
>   If a drawing is to be legible it must be clean and neat.
> 3. Accuracy
>   A drawing must convey ideas of shape and proportion and must be accurate to be of any use. The accuracy of your drawing will depend greatly on the condition of your instruments and the manner in which they are used.
> 4. Speed
>   Speed in executing a drawing comes with the practice of good techniques and a thorough understanding of the processes involved.
>
> *Programmed Technical Drawing*
> R.K. Mullins & D.A. Cooper, 1974

TEXT 2: ARGUMENT (MATERIALS TECHNOLOGY)

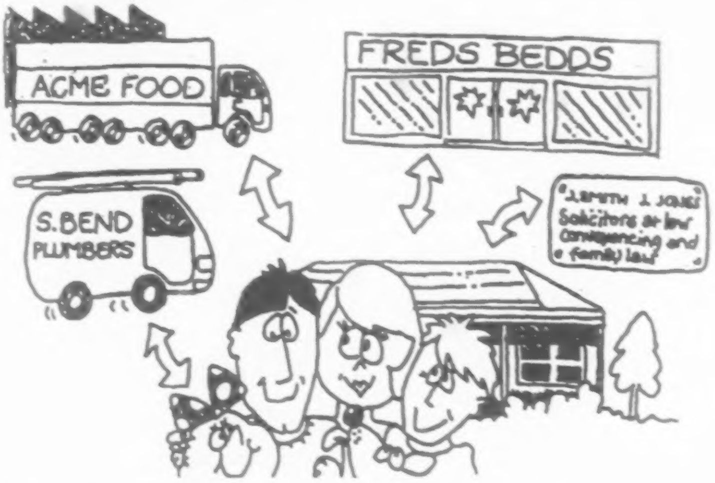
> **Safety in the Workshop**
>
> Safety in the workshop should be the responsibility of all people who enter it, whether they are visitors or workers. Safety first is not a set of rules, it is a state of mind. Rules help the workers develop a safe attitude to work by drawing to their attention potentially dangerous situations; but in the long run, it is the workers' actions which cause accidents. It is important that people obey the safety regulations set down, but just as important is the worker's knowledge of what he or she is doing, what dangers this operation entails, and what should be done to work safely.
>
> To aid the reader to work in a safe manner, a safety guide has been appointed and whenever he appears in the book he will bring you advice on how to carry out an operation safely. His name is Mr Safety.
>
> *Metalworking Part One*, Second Edition
> B.W. Abelson & A.J. Pateman, 1988

TEXT 3: REPORT/ARGUMENT (COMMERCE)

Starting a Business

Why do businesses exist?

We often hear the word business in our everyday lives. We hear of people who 'go into business', people who 'run a business', people who 'sell their business' or even people who 'go out of business'.


ACME FOOD
FREDS BEDDS
S.BEND PLUMBERS
J. SMITH J. JONES Solicitors at law conveyancing and family law

What then is a business? We may regard a business as an organisation which operates to satisfy people's wants. We already know that people have wants and in a commercial economy these wants are satisfied by specialisation and exchange. This means that we specialise in a particular occupation and earn money which we exchange for the goods and services we want. We rely on each other to produce these goods and services and distribute them to the people who want them. There is an important link therefore between producers (those who provide the goods and services) and consumers (those who use the goods and services). Businesses exist to help in the process of satisfying people's wants. Businesses exist to supply people with such things as food, clothing, housing, electrical goods, medical care, legal services, luxury goods and entertainment.

Commerce Two,
B. Parker, T. Clarke & P. Carter, 1988

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TEXT 4: ARGUMENT (HISTORY)

The Economy

Wars are costly exercises. They cause death and destruction and put resources to non-productive uses but they also promote industrial and technological change. This benefit does not mean that war is a good thing, but that it sometimes brings useful developments.

The Second World War further encouraged the restructuring of the Australian economy on a manufacturing basis. Between 1937 and 1945 the value of industrial production almost doubled. This increase was faster than otherwise would have occurred. The momentum was maintained in the post-war years and by 1954-5 the value of manufacturing output was three times that of 1944-5. The enlargement of Australia's steel-making capacity, and of chemicals, rubber, metal goods and motor vehicles all owed something to the demands of the war. The war had acted as something of a hot-house for technological progress and economic change.

The war also revealed inadequacies in Australia's scientific and research capabilities. After the war, strenuous efforts were made to improve these. The Australian National University was established with an emphasis on research. The government gave its support to the advancement of science in many areas, including agricultural production. Though it is difficult to disentangle the effects of war from other influences, it is clear that future generations not only enjoyed the security and peace won by their forefathers but also the benefits of war-time economic expansion.

For Australia's Sake,
H. Simmelhaig & G. Spenceley, 1984

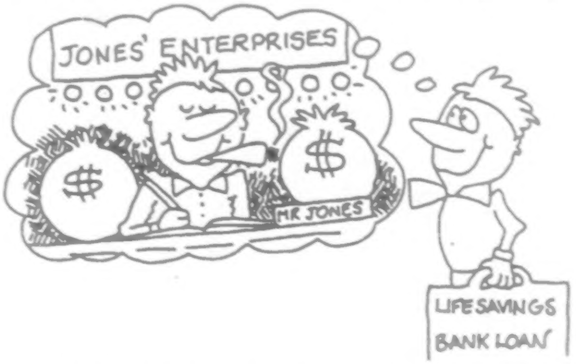
TEXT 5: DISCUSSION (COMMERCE)

Why do people go into business?

In our commercial economy people are encouraged by the opportunity of making a profit. Profit is said to be the reward for taking a risk. If the business is very successful its owner or owners may well earn substantial profits. If the business is unsuccessful the owner or owners may well suffer a loss. They may lose the money they have invested or put into the business.

So what makes some people decide to go into business? Here are some typical comments:

'I wanted to work for myself rather than for a boss.'
'I was sick of working for wages. I wanted the chance to make some real money.'
'I had this great idea and I wanted to try it out.'
'I like the idea of taking risks. I might not succeed, but then again I might be a millionaire one day.'
'I had some money given to me and so I decided to make it work for me by starting up a business.'
'My family has always been in business so it seemed to be the right thing to do.'



We must remember though that many businesses fail. A quick look at this year's yellow pages telephone book in comparison with last year's will reveal quite a number of business names missing and new ones in their place. There are some people who fail in a business but are prepared to try again, sometimes with great success. Others try again and again without success.

Remember also that not everyone wants to go into business. There are people who don't have enough money to go into business or who simply don't wish to go into business for themselves. These people might make these sorts of comments:

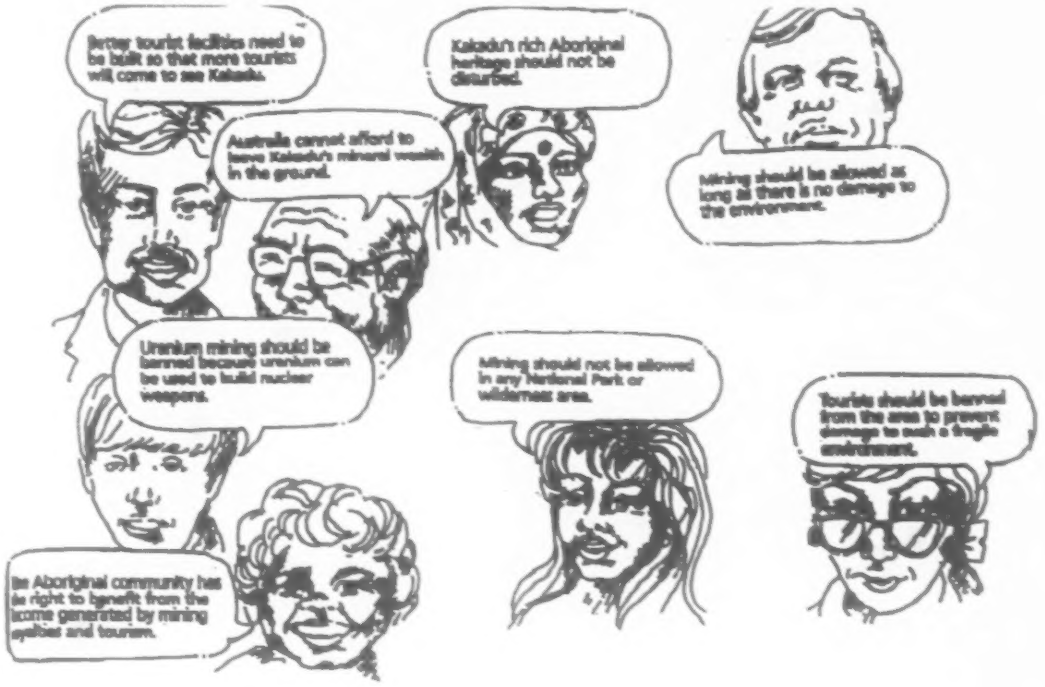
'I enjoy the security of working for wages. I get regular holidays and the boss really looks after me.'
'I don't like taking risks. I worry too much. I would prefer a steady job with a steady income.'
'I haven't got enough money to start a business anyway.'
'I tried going into business. It didn't work. I'd rather work for someone else now and let them do the worrying.'
'I don't really have any idea as to what sort of business I should go into. My family has always worked for someone else.'

Commerce Two,
B. Parker, T. Clarke & P. Carter, 1988

TEXT 6: DISCUSSION (GEOGRAPHY)

Different views about Kakadu

There are have many arguments about development in the Kakadu area, and during the 1980s and early 1990s the number of tourists visiting Kakadu increased greatly. This has meant that more people come to know about Kakadu, and that there has been more public interest in what happens there.


Better tourist facilities need to be built so that more tourists will come to see Kakadu.
Kakadu's rich Aboriginal heritage should not be disturbed.
Australia cannot afford to leave Kakadu's mineral wealth in the ground.
Mining should be allowed as long as there is no damage to the environment.
Uranium mining should be banned because uranium can be used to build nuclear weapons.
Mining should not be allowed in any National Park or wilderness area.
Tourists should be banned from the area to prevent damage to such a fragile environment.
he Aboriginal community has he right to benefit from the come generated by mining yalties and tourism.

Managing the environment of Kakadu is a difficult task. One of the problems in managing Kakadu National Park, for instance, is ensuring that the Aboriginal rock paintings are kept in good condition. Because of the number visitors to the sites of these paintings, there is always the risk that the ancient artworks could be damaged. However, it is also important that many Australians see such sites to help them better appreciate our Australian Aboriginal heritage.

Another management problem is the development of mining in the Kakadu region. The area of the Ranger Uranium Mine is carved out of the Kakadu National Park. In 1991 a proposal to mine uranium at Coronation Hill, in the south of Kakadu, was rejected by the Federal Government.

Australia: A Core Geography,
J. Butler and G. Kleeman, 1992

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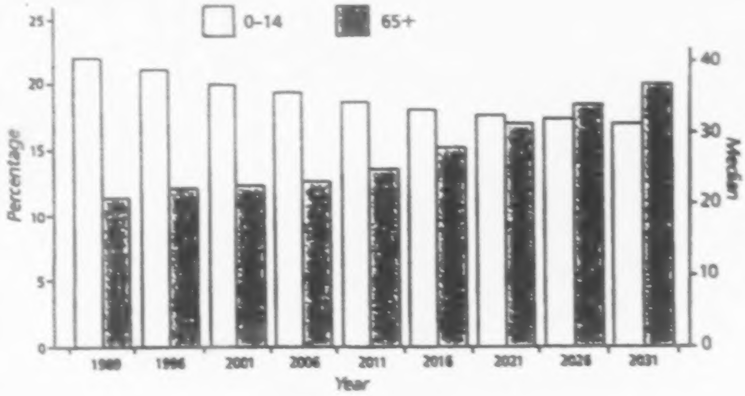
TEXT 7: DISCUSSION (GEOGRAPHY)

How many people can Australia support?

Although there would seem to be enough food and space for everyone in Australia at present, there is argument about how many people Australia can support at our present standard of living. People disagree about how many migrants should be admitted, and what size population we should aim at.



Predictions of old and young in the population. (Source: ABS)

Australia: A Core Geography,
J. Butler and G. Kleeman, 1992

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TEXT 1A: ARGUMENT (DRAWING) STAGES

3 to 3-5

Drawing Objectives

Thesis and Preview of Argument	Technical Drawing is not only a way of communicating ideas but is also an essential part of any design process. Four important objectives should be kept in mind by technical drawing students.
Argument	1. Legibility Since each drawing is a means of communicating it should be clear and legible. Particular care should be taken with details such as lettering and dimension. 2. Neatness If a drawing is to be legible it must be clean and neat. 3. Accuracy A drawing must convey ideas of shape and proportion and must be accurate to be of any use. The accuracy of your drawing will depend greatly on the condition of your instruments and the manner in which they are used. 4. Speed Speed in executing a drawing comes with the practice of good techniques and a thorough understanding of the processes involved.

Programmed Technical Drawing,
R.K. Mullins & D.A. Cooper, 1974

ARGUMENT TEXT 2A: ARGUMENT (MATERIALS TECHNOLOGY) STAGES

Safety in the workshop

Thesis	Safety in the workshop should be the responsibility of all people who enter it, whether they are visitors or workers.
Argument	Safety first is not a set of rules, it is a state of mind. Rules help the workers develop a safe attitude to work by drawing to their attention potentially dangerous situations; but in the long run, it is the workers' actions which cause accidents. It is important that people obey the safety regulations set down, but just as important is the worker's knowledge of what he or she is doing, what dangers this operation entails, and what should be done to work safely. To aid the reader to work in a safe manner, a safety guide has been appointed and whenever he appears in the book he will bring you advice on how to carry out an operation safely. His name is **Mr Safety.**

Metalworking Part One, Second Edition
B.W. Abelson & A.J. Pateman, 1988

TEXT 3A: REPORT/ARGUMENT (COMMERCE) STAGES

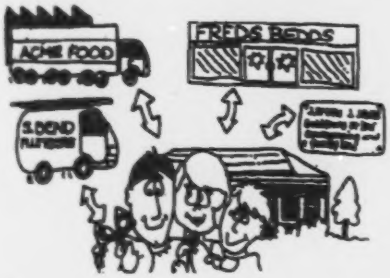
Starting a Business

Thesis

Why do businesses exist?

Report

We often hear the word business in our everyday lives. We hear of people who 'go into business', people who 'run a business', people who 'sell their business' or even people who 'go out of business'.



What then is a business? We may regard a business as an organisation which operates to satisfy people's wants. We already know that people have wants and in a commercial economy these wants are satisfied by specialisation and exchange.

Argument

This means that we specialise in a particular occupation and earn money which we exchange for the goods and services we want. We rely on each other to produce these goods and services and distribute them to the people who want them.

There is an important link therefore between producers (those who provide the goods and services) and consumers (those who use the goods and services).

Conclusion

Businesses exist to help in the process of satisfying people's wants. Businesses exist to supply people with such things as food, clothing, housing, electrical goods, medical care, legal services, luxury goods and entertainment.

Commerce Two,
B. Parker, T. Clarke & P. Carter, 1988

TEXT 4A: (HISTORY) ARGUMENT STAGES

The Economy

Thesis	[There is no thesis stated. It is implicit, ie wars aren't all bad.]
Argument	Wars are costly exercises. They cause death and destruction and put resources to non-productive uses but they also promote industrial and technological change. This benefit does not mean that war is a good thing, but that it sometimes brings useful developments. The Second World War further encouraged the restructuring of the Australian economy on a manufacturing basis. Between 1937 and 1945 the value of industrial production almost doubled. This increase was faster than otherwise would have occurred. The momentum was maintained in the post-war years and by 1954–5 the value of manufacturing output was three times that of 1944–5. The enlargement of Australia's steel-making capacity, and of chemicals, rubber, metal goods and motor vehicles all owed something to the demands of the war. The war had acted as something of a hot-house for technological progress and economic change. The war also revealed inadequacies in Australia's scientific and research capabilities. After the war, strenuous efforts were made to improve these. The Australian National University was established with an emphasis on research. The government gave its support to the advancement of science in many areas, including agricultural production.
Conclusion	Though it is difficult to disentangle the effects of war from other influences, it is clear that future generations not only enjoyed the security and peace won by their forefathers but also the benefits of war-time economic expansion.

For Australia's Sake,
H. Simmelhaig & G. Spenceley T. Nelson, 1984

TEXT 5A: DISCUSSION (COMMERCE) STAGES

Thesis

Why do people go into business?

Preview of Issue

In our commercial economy people are encouraged by the opportunity of making a profit. Profit is said to be the reward for taking a risk. If the business is very successful its owner or owners may well earn substantial profits. If the business is unsuccessful the owner or owners may well suffer a loss. They may lose the money they have invested or put into the business.

Arguments For

So what makes some people decide to go into business? Here are some typical comments:

'I wanted to work for myself rather than for a boss.'

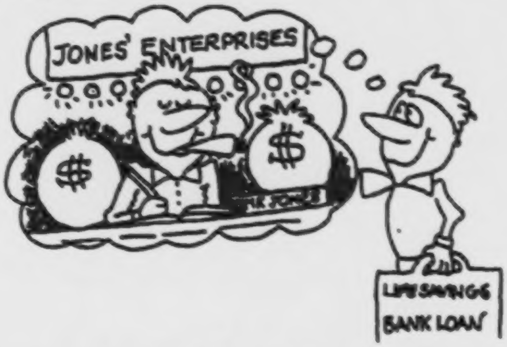
'I was sick of working for wages. I wanted the chance to make some real money.'

'I had this great idea and I wanted to try it out.'

'I like the idea of taking risks. I might not succeed, but then again I might be a millionaire one day.'

'I had some money given to me and so I decided to make it work for me by starting up a business.'

'My family has always been in business so it seemed to be the right thing to do.'



Arguments Against

We must remember though that many businesses fail. A quick look at this year's yellow pages telephone book in comparison with last year's will reveal quite a number of business names missing and new ones in their place. There are some people who fail in a business but are prepared to try again, sometimes with great success. Others try again and again without success.

Remember also that not everyone wants to go into business. There are people who don't have enough money to go into business or who simply don't wish to go into business for themselves. These people might make these sorts of comments:

'I enjoy the security of working for wages. I get regular holidays and the boss really looks after me.'

'I don't like taking risks. I worry too much. I would prefer a steady job with a steady income.'

'I haven't got enough money to start a business anyway.'

'I tried going into business. It didn't work. I'd rather work for someone else now and let them do the worrying.'

'I don't really have any idea as to what sort of business I should go into. My family has always worked for someone else.'

Commerce Two,
B. Parker, T. Clarke & P. Carter, 1988

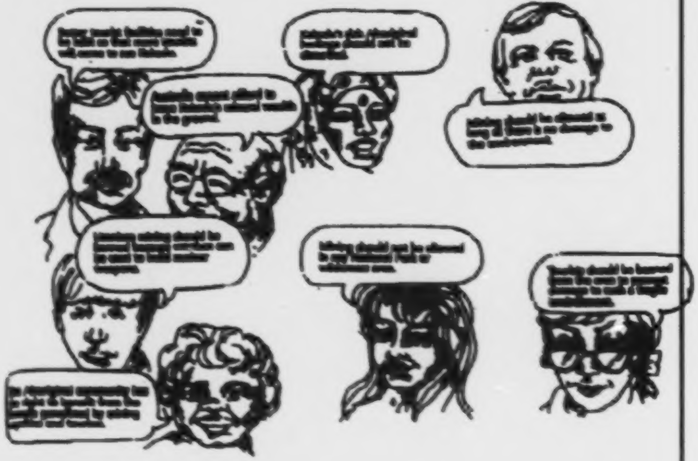
TEXT 6A: DISCUSSION (GEOGRAPHY) STAGES

Thesis

Different views about Kakadu

There are have many arguments about development in the Kakadu area, and during the 1980s and early 1990s the number of tourists visiting Kakadu increased greatly. This has meant that more people come to know about Kakadu, and that there has been more public interest in what happens there.

Arguments for and against



Managing the environment of Kakadu is a difficult task. One of the problems in managing Kakadu National Park, for instance, is ensuring that the Aboriginal rock paintings are kept in good condition. Because of the number of visitors to the sites of these paintings, there is always the risk that the ancient artworks could be damaged. However, it is also important that many Australians see such sites to help them better appreciate our Australian Aboriginal heritage.

Another management problem is the development of mining in the Kakadu region. The area of the Ranger Uranium Mine is carved out of the Kakadu National Park. In 1991 a proposal to mine uranium at Coronation Hill, in the south of Kakadu, was rejected by the Federal Government.

Australia: A Core Geography,
J. Butler and G. Kleeman, 1992

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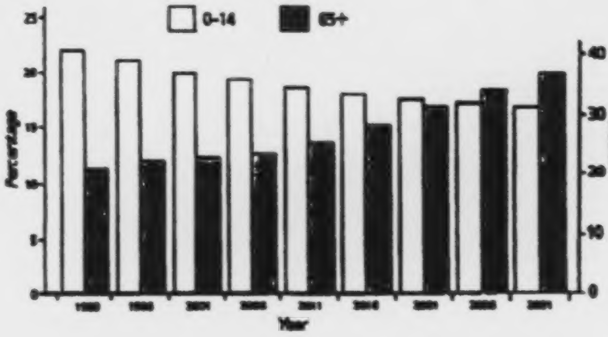
TEXT 7A: DISCUSSION (GEOGRAPHY) STAGES

Thesis	How many people can Australia support?
Preview of Issues	Although there would seem to be enough food and space for everyone in Australia at present, there is argument about how many people Australia can support at our present standard of living. People disagree about how many migrants should be admitted, and what size population we should aim at.
Figure	 Figure - Predictions of old and young in the population. (Source: ABS)

Australia: A Core Geography,
J. Butler and G. Kleeman, 1992

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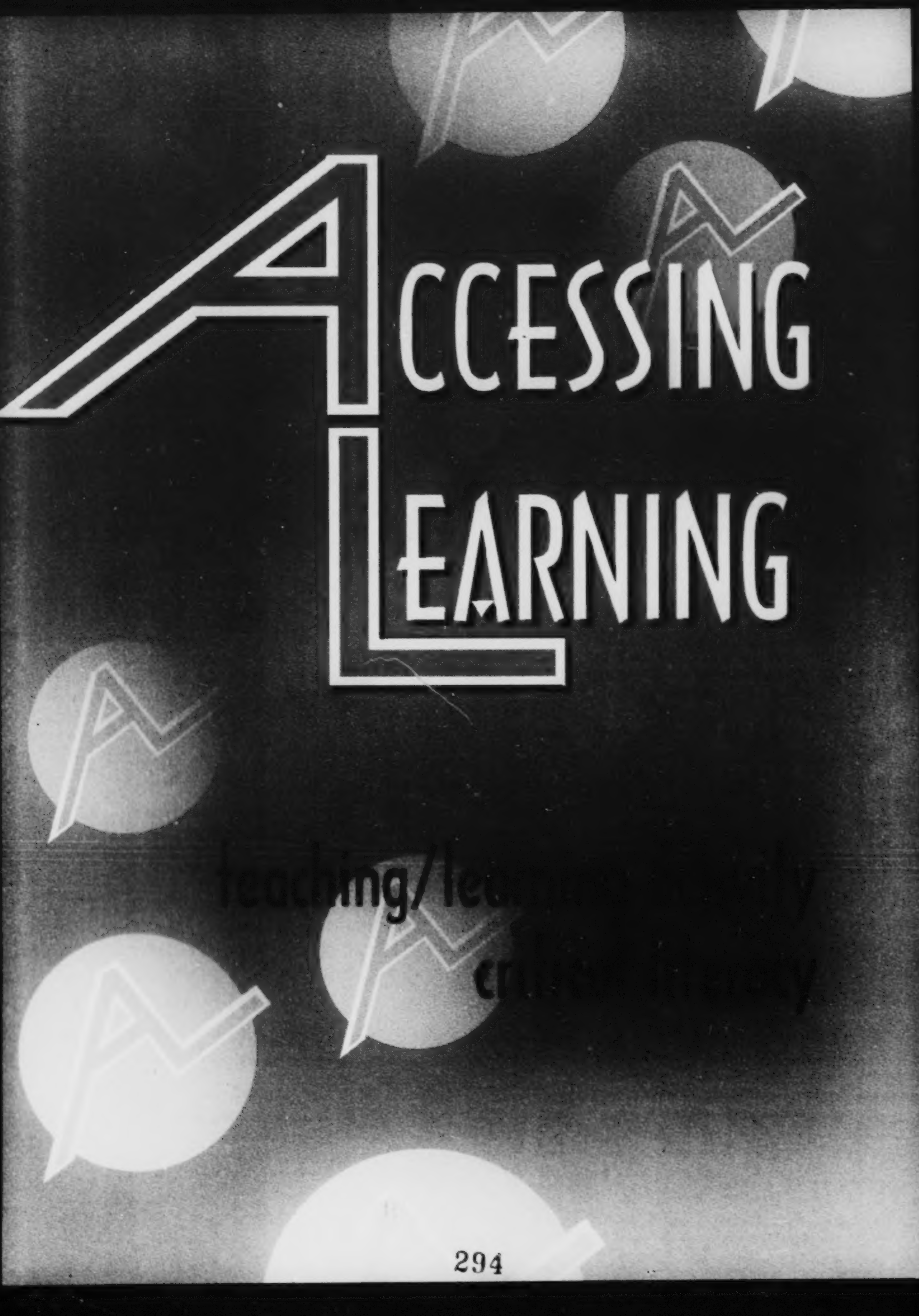

ACCESSING LEARNING

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WHAT IS ASSUMED AND HOW DO YOU KNOW?

Learner Task 1

> Look at these two definitions of conscription. How do the definitions differ? Would they be acceptable for inclusion in a History textbook?

Workshop Task 1

1

Definition 1

> 'Conscription is compulsory enrolment in the armed services introduced by a country, wherever necessary, in order to win an armed conflict.'

Definition 2

> 'Conscription is the forced enrolment of young people into the armed forces, instituted by the government to fight in theatres of war, *wherever deemed appropriate*.

Commentary

The first definition is not as neutral as it at first appears. In fact the reader is subtly positioned into a positive view of conscription by the choice of positive or neutral words such as *necessary* and *win*.

The second definition presents a bias against conscription. A sense of limitation of human rights comes through in words such as *forced*, *instituted* and *deemed*. In other words, the writer has positioned the reader to view conscription through the writer's own value system.

These definitions are both doing the same thing, providing a working definition. Where they differ is in the assumptions which lie behind them. Identifying these assumptions is important if we are to read critically.

Learner Task 2

> Look at the following table of word choices in the two definitions.
>
> How do they express the author's underlying assumptions?

Workshop Task 2

2

Definition 1	Definition 2
Compulsory	forced
—	young people
armed services	armed forces
introduced	instituted
by a country	by the government
win	fight
armed conflict	theatres of war
necessary	deemed appropriate

Commentary

The word choice in definition 1 presents a positive view of conscription. The word choice in the second presents a negative view. Texts are never neutral; they position the reader in some way. Readers need to be aware that:

- The writer has a point of view which is influencing the choices made in the writing.
- Often things which are assumed, for example the values of society, look neutral, but of course are not at all neutral.
- The reader brings to the text prior knowledge of content and language patterns which create particular meanings (schemata).

In the second definition, the writer's viewpoint was easily identified, but as we saw from the first definition, a writer can easily position the reader to see things from his/her perspective without being obvious. The writer establishes a status quo, which the reader will often unconsciously maintain. In addition, having been asked to read a definition of conscription will have brought into the mind of the reader many personal opinions and facts, even before s/he encounters those of the writer. This combination takes the process of reading beyond the idea of the simple decoding of a neutral text.

If readers are aware of the language resources that writers may use to position them, and of the influence of their own past experience, they are far more likely to:

- be able to separate fact from opinion;
- be aware that the selection of facts chosen by the writer also positions the reader; and
- be able to write effectively using the full resources of the language to communicate their own views.

Ideology

As stated, texts are never neutral. They are influenced by the way the author views the world. This view is known as ideology. 3

> Ideology is used here in its most general sense, to indicate 'the set of ideas which arise from a given set of material interest' (Williams, 1976). To attend to the ideology of texts is therefore to be conscious of the way in which language is permeated with the values and presuppositions of its dominant users. Our view of the world is structured by the language we most often hear used to describe it — the reporting of news events on television or in the newspapers is one obvious example. Paradoxically, it is the dominant ideology which is the least conspicuous; and it is only when this set of assumptions is contested by other social groups with different interests that the word 'ideological' — used now in a disparaging sense ('blinded with foolish theories') — is likely to be heard. The goal is always to make ideology invisible, to sustain habits of language which make it 'natural', a matter of sheer 'commonsense', to subscribe to a particular version (or inversion) of the world.

Language in the National Curriculum,
UK, 1992.

CRITICAL THINKING

Critical literacy is an important aspect of critical thinking. Bayer (1985) describes critical thinking as:

> the careful, precise, persistent and objective analysis of any knowledge claim or belief to judge its validity and worth. It requires an alertness to the need to evaluate information, a willingness to test opinions, and a desire to consider all viewpoints. Particularly, it requires an awareness of the need to identify the filter through which we view information, select facts and define problems. 4

cont.

cont.

Some of the specific skills involved in critical thinking are:

- distinguishing fact from opinion;
- determining reliability of a source;
- distinguishing relevant from irrelevant information;
- detecting bias and frame of reference;
- determining the strength of an argument;
- identifying equivocal and ambiguous statements;
- recognising logical inconsistencies; and
- identifying assumptions.

Students require assistance to develop critical thinking skills through critical literacy activities so they can become informed readers and writers.

B.Bayer, 1985, *Critical thinking: What is it?*

Learner Task 3

Workshop Task 3

5

1

Look at the following primary source document, taken from a secondary History textbook, and examine how the speaker guides the listener through the language choices he makes.

Which words indicate that the speaker is openly stating his views?

Refer to the Glossary of Language Features in Module Two for an explanation of the language features referred to in this unit.

This speech was made by Archbishop Dr Daniel Mannix in September 1916:

I hope and believe that peace can be secured without conscription. For conscription is a hateful thing... for myself, it will take a good deal to convince me that conscription in Australia would not cause more evil than it would avert. I honestly believe that Australia has done her full share and more, and that she cannot reasonably be expected to bear the financial strain and the drain upon her manhood that conscription would involve. If conscription were adopted I should expect to find later that many who are now its loudest advocates would be the first to rise up against the taxation necessary to redeem our obligations to the returned soldiers or to their widows or orphans or dependants in case the soldiers gave their lives on the battlefield. I think I can say that I have read most of the appeals that have been made for conscription in Australia. But in spite of these eloquent and impassioned appeals my common sense will not allow me to believe that the addition of 100,000 or 200,000 conscript Australians to the 15,000,000 of fighting men that the Allies have at their disposal could be a deciding factor or even a substantial factor in the issue of the war.

Federation to Furore, J. Johnson & R. Johnson, 1981

Commentary

The impression that the speaker is being open in his views is given by the words: *hope, I believe, I honestly believe etc.*

By taking this approach, and placing the words in the position of Theme, the speaker creates the impression of himself as a reasonable person, allowing highly emotive words to seem factual.

His reasonableness is further reflected in his use of modality — a language resource which allows us to soften our language and appear less definite: *peace* ***can*** *be secured, it* ***will*** *take, it* ***would*** *avert, I* ***can*** *say, I* ***should*** *expect.*

All the words in bold serve to soften the speaker's intent, thereby making him appear measured in his predictions. The listener is encouraged to accept the emotive word choice and the lack of factual evidence to support the speaker's case.

While it is important for students to be able to identify this kind of bias in primary source material it should be remembered that it is inappropriate for:

- teachers to ask students to create primary source texts;
- students to be encouraged to use this kind of personalised language resource to present a point of view in their essay writing.

Learner Task 4

Workshop Task 4

2

The Themes in the speech made by Archbishop Dr Daniel Mannix set a highly personalised, reasonable tone. Underline the Themes in the following text. What tone do they create?

The Conscription Issue

Labor Prime Minister William Morris Hughes was a strong supporter of the war effort. After visiting England in 1916, Hughes realised just how serious the position was on the Western Front. The Australians had suffered heavy casualties there and now needed a higher enlistment rate to keep their divisions up to strength.

Enlistment had fallen off when the war dragged on into its second year; much of the initial enthusiasm faded as the heavy loss of life and the accounts of the soldiers' terrible suffering shook the idealised view of the war that many people had held. Many did not really believe in the war any longer.

Prime Minister Hughes wanted to introduce conscription but met with a great deal of opposition from within his own Labor Party. It was decided to put the issue to the people at a referendum.

cont.

cont.

Before the referendum was held (28 October 1916), the supporters of both sides — those for and those against conscription — tried to persuade the voters that their particular view was the right one.

Speakers, some eloquent and some not so eloquent, addressed hundreds of meetings, thousands of posters were pasted up in public places, advertisements and letters appeared in the newspapers.

It seemed that everyone had an opinion and voiced it; there were bitter quarrels among political opponents and discord among neighbours and friends. The referendum aroused all the fervour of a hard fought election campaign.

Federation to Furore, J. Johnson & R. Johnson, 1981

Commentary

The writer created a neutral, factual and powerful tone through the Themes: *Labor Prime Minister, Enlistment, Before the referendum, Speakers*. The author has chosen to write this in the account genre. This genre is used to account for uncontroversial phenomena. By not choosing the argument genre which Archbishop Dr Mannix chose, where the problematic nature of the issue is highlighted, this author is masking the controversial nature of the topic by making his opinion seem factual. (See Language Descriptions Challenging and Explaining, Modules Five and Six for further development of this idea.)

Learner Task 5

Look at paragraph 1 of *The Conscription Issue*. Underline words or phrases in the first paragraph which you think position the reader towards a positive view of conscription, and compare with the version which follows.

Workshop Task 5

2

Direct participants back to Handout 2.

3

The Conscription Issue

Labor Prime Minister William Morris Hughes was a strong supporter of the war effort. After visiting England in 1916, Hughes realised just how serious the position was on the Western Front. The Australians had suffered heavy casualties there and now needed a higher enlistment rate to keep their divisions up to strength.

Federation to Furore,
J. Johnson & R. Johnson, 1981

Commentary

The first two sentences set Hughes up as an expert who knows the truth of the situation. He achieves credibility by the use of the words *strong supporter of the war effort* and then confirms the truth of the need for higher enlistment by thematising (putting first) the evidence, *After visiting England,* and using the verb *realise* as opposed to, say, 'thought'. The phrases *how serious the position was*, and *up to strength* reinforce the need for conscription.

The third sentence assumes that the *war effort* should continue to be supported, therefore the only desirable alternative is conscription.

We have seen so far a number of ways in which a text positions a reader, in other words, how the language choices an author makes gives a text an ideological stand.

Learner Task 8

Workshop Task 6

4

Examine the following text, bearing in mind these questions:

How is the problem of the invasion characterised here?

To whom does the text attribute this problem?

Aboriginal cultures...did not survive in the face of European invasion. This was due in part to their ethic of territoriality, which placed more emphasis on defence than on offence. Because of the strict adherence to this, no social mechanisms existed for creating armies to fight the Europeans, who had an easy time tackling tribe after tribe. As well, tribes found it impossible to unite in the short time allowed. The Aborigines' emphasis on the necessity of stability and the European desire for expansion, progress and change inevitably clashed...

Primary Social Studies Source Book: Year 4,
Queensland Department of Education, 1988

Commentary

This text is a far cry from the days when text books talked of settlement beginning in 1788. Nevertheless, is it as positive or at least evenhanded as it appears?

> The reader is positioned to be receptive to the notion that it was deficits in the structure and flexibility of the Aboriginal culture that affected the ensuing events caused by the white invasion of Australia. Aboriginal culture, on this reading, fractured fairly easily. Part of the ease with which such a position can be covertly adopted by the white Australian school student is directly due to the connection this text enjoys with numerous comparable texts that adopt comparable positions. Other texts, of the kind proposed for example, from the point of view of the Aborigines themselves, might well offer somewhat different reading positions.
>
> *Christie Report,* Vol 1, p.145

Indeed the author has chosen not to problematise the account but to present it as fact, allowing an uncritical reader to be convinced that this account is the truth which is behind the event. This positioning is particularly alarming as it assumes that the writer's values necessarily are the right ones. Evidence of this can be seen in an examination of the verb types used in the text.

Learner Task 7

1. Underline all the verbs in the Task 6 text.

   What kind of verbs are most of them?
   Why would this be so?
2. Who is acting most of the action verbs?
3. Circle words which present a definite tone.
4. What effect do these language choices create?

Workshop Task 7

4

Direct participants back to this handout.

Commentary

1. The verbs used in the text are mostly about actions *(did not survive, unite, clashed).* The reader is left with the impression that the situation arose as a result of deliberate action.

2. Further, by positioning the Aborigines as the subject (actor) of many of the clauses, they are portrayed as being in control. This unconventional positioning of the reader is very subtly conveyed in the text, and is quite difficult to pinpoint without looking at the grammatical resources through which it is expressed.

3. The text has a very definite tone (polarity) *(did not, inevitably).* Again, most of this definite and negative language is used in relation to the Aboriginal role, adding the impression the Aborigines had an active role to play in the outcome.

These three grammatical resources combine to imply that the Aborigines rather than the Europeans were responsible for the eventual outcome.

Aboriginal cultures did not survive in the face of European invasion. This was due in part to their ethic of territoriality, which placed more emphasis on defence than offence. Because of the strict adherence to this no social mechanisms existed for creating armies to fight the Europeans, who had an easy time tackling tribe after tribe. As well, tribes found it impossible to unite in the short time allowed. The Aborigines' emphasis on the necessity of stability and the European desire for expansions, progress and change inevitably clashed...

Primary Social Studies Sourcebook : Year 4
Queensland Department of Education, 1988

6

5

INTO PRACTICE

How would knowledge of the language features which display an author's underlying ideology assist your students to be critically literate?

Learner Task 8

You have now completed the final teaching/learning activity. Watch Video 3: Geography Cycle. In it Alan and the students are writing an argument essay on the topic, Waste Management.

Complete a blank deconstruction proforma (page 44) which will assist you to focus on the purpose for each of the activities Alan is presenting to his Year 9 Geography class.

On completion of this Task and the deconstruction you may like to compare your deconstruction with the suggested example on the following pages.

When you have completed this, turn to the Parts of the Classroom Units which deal with challenging. Then undertake the Conclusion to *Accessing Learning*, the final module in the course.

Workshop Task 8

Workshop leaders will need to make enough copies of the proforma, Handout 6, two to four per person.

6 to 6-2

Coordinator to provide Handouts 6-1 and 6-2 after the Task is completed.

DECONSTRUCTION PROFORMA

SEGMENT OF TEACHING/ LEARNING CYCLE	DESCRIPTION OF ACTIVITY	PURPOSE OF ACTIVITY	ALTERNATIVE OR ADDITIONAL ACTIVITIES

GEOGRAPHY CYCLE DECONSTRUCTION

SEGMENT OF TEACHING/ LEARNING CYCLE	DESCRIPTION OF ACTIVITY	PURPOSE OF ACTIVITY	ALTERNATIVE OR ADDITIONAL ACTIVITIES
Preparing the Context	Questions about argument.	Raise schemata about use of language in the Challenging the World genres. No content preparation is needed because students have been engaged in the topic for some time. (Informal assessment.)	Group discussion to raise issues.
Developing the Context	Jigsaw — introduction is read.	Prepare for jigsaw reading activity. Preparation of technical vocabulary needed for jigsaw.	Worksheet activity on definitions.
	Definitions matching activity.	Developing the reading strategies of looking for vocabulary links (lexical cohesion). (Peer assessment.)	Other reading activities e.g. cloze, comprehension questions.
	Jigsaw reading in first grouping and answering task.	Gain content control over part of the reading. (Informal assessment.)	
	Jigsaw reading in second grouping and answering final task.	Share information for later use in the Teacher-led Construction. (Informal assessment.)	
Modelling	Deconstruction of model for stages.	Explore generic structure of argument.	Sequencing of stages of model in strips.
	Ordering modality words on OHT strips.	Compare use of modality words to make meaning precise	

cont.

GEOGRAPHY CYCLE DECONSTRUCTION cont.

SEGMENT OF TEACHING/ LEARNING CYCLE	DESCRIPTION OF ACTIVITY	PURPOSE OF ACTIVITY	ALTERNATIVE OR ADDITIONAL ACTIVITIES
	Cline of temporal connectives.	Extend student vocabulary.	Cloze emotive words.
	Emotive language table.	Demonstrate one aspect of critical literacy.	
	Circle emotive language in the model.	Explore the position adopted by the writer in the text. (Informal assessment.)	
Teacher-led Construction	Examine questions from model and teacher-led construction.	Draw distinction between argument and discussion genres.	
	Develop two alternative schematic structures for discussion.	Prepare a schematic structure for use in the teacher-led construction.	
	Guide students in the writing of the teacher-led construction (Version 1.)	Use the appropriate schematic structure to order the information in the answer. (Informal assessment.)	
	Guide students in rewriting (Version 2)	Incorporate the language features highlighted in the modelling phase to produce a more appropriate text.	
Student-led Construction	Set revision essay.	Draw together all the content of the unit of work.	

ACCESSING LEARNING

module six

LANGUAGE AND LITERACY DEVELOPMENT IN KEY LEARNING AREAS

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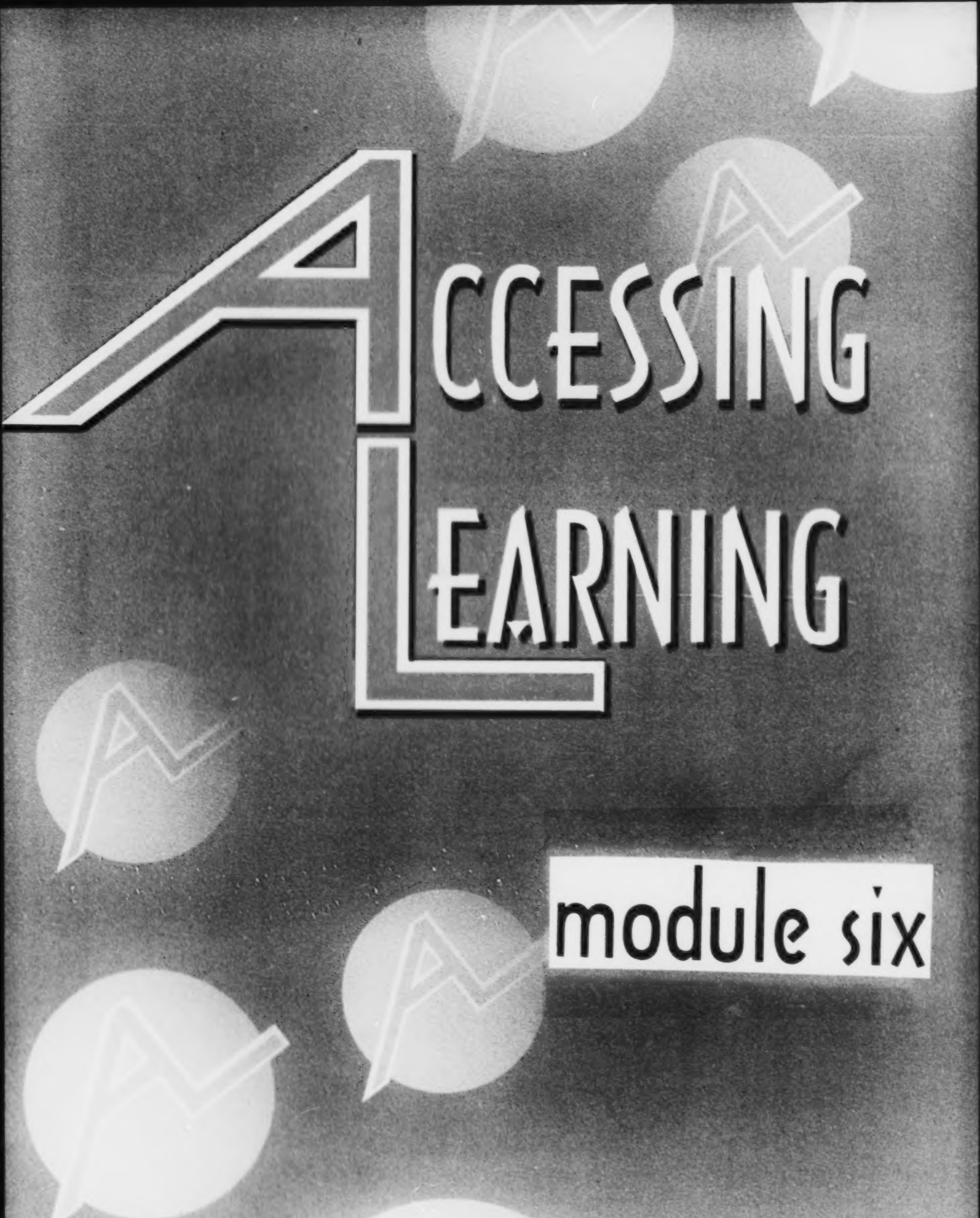

ACCESSING LEARNING

module six

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   Part 2: History - Survey Writing
   Video 2: Design and Technology - Describing

2. Blackline Masters
   Video 3: Geography - Challenging

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ISBN 1 86382 051 5 (The complete kit)
1 86382 052 3 (The Outline and all Modules)
1 86382 053 1 (The Blackline Masters)

Funded through the Literacy and Learning General Element, Commonwealth Department of Employment, Education and Training.

Printed and published by the Catholic Education Office, P.O. Box 217, Leichhardt NSW 2040.
Phone (02) 569 6111 Fax (02) 550 0052

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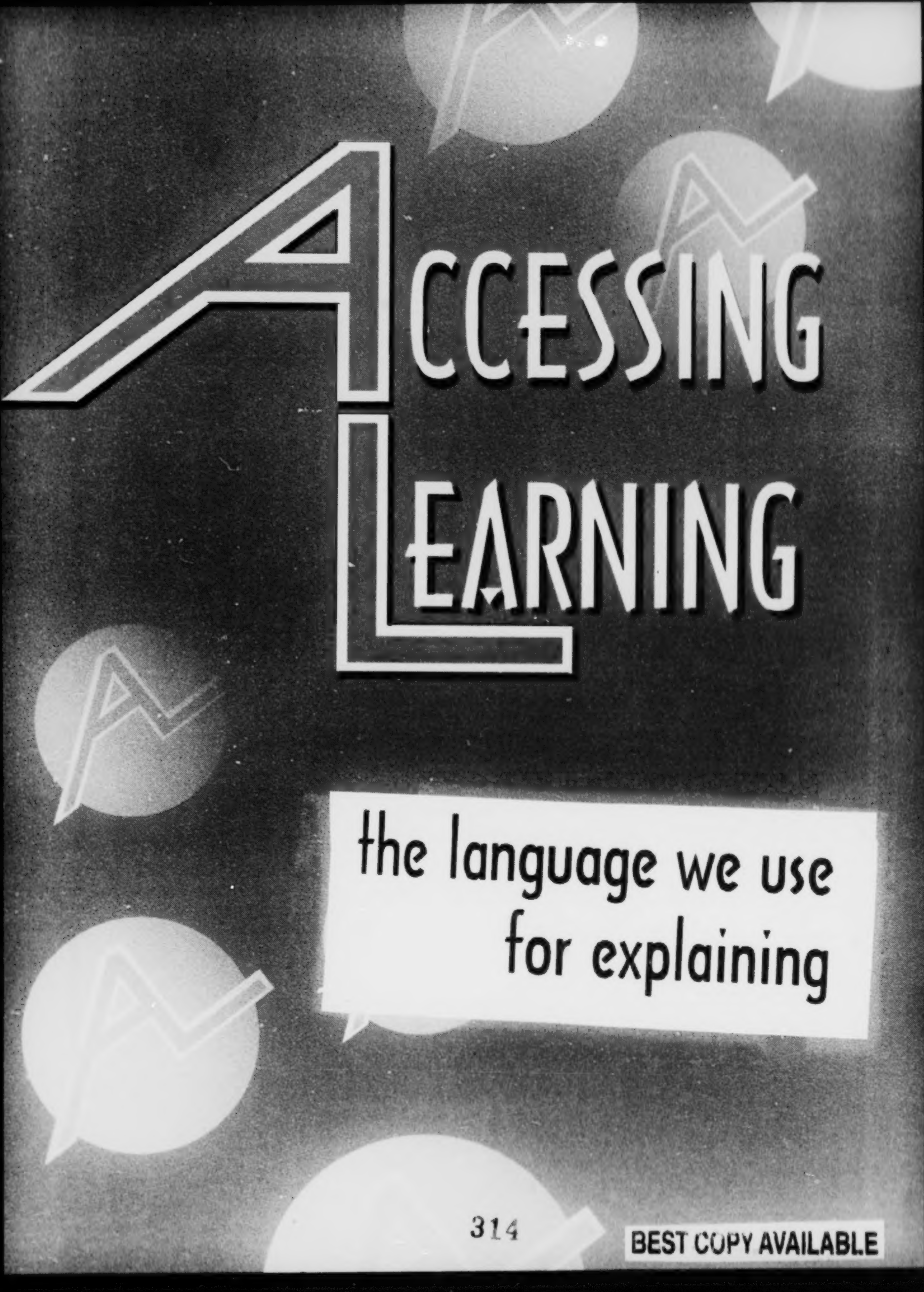

ACCESSING LEARNING

the language we use for explaining

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INTRODUCTION

In the Language for describing in Module Three we looked at how the world is. In this language description we look at how things in the world work. Explaining is central to the Key Learning Area of Human Society and its Environment. This macro-function makes sense of natural and human phenomena observed and experienced in the world, both in terms of how things happen and why they happen. It identifies a phenomenon and then offers an explanation for that phenomenon. It involves two genres: explanation and account. They deal principally with the factual world and are important in Geography, History and Commerce.

In this description we highlight characteristic language features of the genres to discuss with your students. When students experience difficulty in either reading or writing in these genres you will be able to use this section to pinpoint the source of difficulty and address it with a shared understanding and metalanguage.

TEXTS

There are four texts used for working in the genres of this language description. You will find them in two groups, beginning on page 16. First come the original texts, then versions marked 'A' which show division into the genre stages.

Lists of working texts

Text 1: Explanation (Geography) page 11
Text 2: Account (Commerce)
Text 3: Account (History)
Text 4: Account (History)

Text 1A: Explanation (Geography) Stages page 13
Text 2A: Account (Commerce) Stages
Text 3A: Account (History) Stages
Text 4A: Account (History) Stages

EXPLANATION AND ACCOUNT

Learner Task 1

Text 1 is an explanation and Texts 2 – 4 are accounts. Read the one(s) for your subject and consider the following:

What is the purpose of this text? Who would read it and why?

How would you divide the text into stages?

Name each stage according to its purpose.

Workshop Task 1

1

1 to 1-2

PURPOSE OF EXPLANATIONS AND ACCOUNTS

Explanations are a type of factual writing. They identify a phenomenon and explain how it occurs or why. `For example, we can state the phenomenon that when water evaporates it changes into water vapour and then offer an explanation of how this occurs.

Explanations function to explain how processes in the natural world happen; they remain close to the events and are structured in the same sequence as the events occur. They do not deal with controversial issues but concentrate on things the way they are, eg why some crops grow in a particular area.

Explanations occur frequently in the natural and physical sciences. They are central to the construction of knowledge in Geography, whereas, Technological and Applied Studies students are not normally asked to write explanations although, as with other genres, they may be asked to read them in their background research.

Accounts focus on events rather than the people involved in them. They account for changes in, or the development of, some aspect of the human world over time.

In History they focus on the reasons why something happened or the factors involved in its happening.

The key distinction between historical recount (seen inModule Four) and an account lies in the purpose for which they are written. An account is a move away from retelling a story into interpreting events. It requires the student to move further along in abstraction and begin not only to examine events and their significance, as in historical recount, but to account for changes in, or the development of, some aspect of history over time.

They can also be organised around factors which are not necessarily ordered in time.

In Commerce, accounts serve to exemplify a topic. They are similar to arguments, as they are organised around a framework of reasons or factors, but they do not deal with issues as if they are controversial. The focus is on the way things work/happen, rather than the way things should work/happen. In other words there is a phenomenon identified and events explained; accounts situate those events in a period of time.

STAGES OF EXPLANATIONS AND ACCOUNTS

Phenomenon

This first stage identifies the phenomenon being written about. For example, in Text 1 the phenomenon is identified in the first line: ***Water in the atmosphere,*** and in Text 4 in the sentence: ***By AD 47, within four years of their invasion, the Romans had built almost 1,000 miles of roads.*** The difference between the first stage in explanations and the first stage in accounts is that in the latter the first stage is often set in time.

Explanation sequence

This is the part of the text that offers the explanation of the phenomenon. In any explanation or account there will normally be more than one event or happening, and these will occur in a particular sequence. The Explanation Sequence in an account often provides a general account of what happened over a long period of time in the past. They can sometimes be Explanation Factors, as in Text 3. Factors are not necessarily ordered in time.

Results

This is an optional stage which highlights the significance or impact of the phenomenon or what changes have occurred over time as a result of the phenomenon.

Summary of stages

The generic structure of explanation and account is:

Phenomenon ^ Explanation Sequence/Factors ^ (Result)

2

In summary, the two elements Phenomenon and Explanation are obligatory stages, which are essential if the goal of the genre is to be achieved. Some texts also include an optional Result stage.

Learner Task 2

Now that you have information on the purpose and structure of explanations and accounts, go back to the text for your subject and identify the Phenomenon and Explanation Sequence or Explanation Factors of the text.

Compare your ideas with those of the 'A' version of the text.

Workshop Task 2
2 to 2-2

Commentary

Text 1: *Water in the atmosphere*

This text focuses on how something occurs in the natural world. The first sentence identifies the phenomenon. The actual Explanation (how it is that it rains) occurs in the second (ie final) paragraph. The first paragraph reads in some ways like a report, that is, concerned with presenting factual information. However, the emphasis is on states of being, and it functions to set up technical understanding so the explanation can be offered in the second paragraph.

Text 2: *Why do businesses need to keep records?*

This text justifies the introductory sentence. The arguments are not related to contentious issues but are rather presented to account for standard practice in Commerce. The text has an explanatory function in that it identifies the reasons why businesses can fail. It then explains how keeping adequate records and accounting systems can remedy some of these problems. Again the purpose of the text is to account for phenomena in the human world.

Text 3: *The End of Bushranging*

This text represents a further step in abstraction which is characteristic of History. It is organised, not around events, but around factors. As can be seen in this example, when an account is organised around factors, the factors are not necessarily sequenced. This kind of account is not sequenced in time the way Text 4 needs to be. Bushranging is seen in terms of actions rather than people. It focuses on why something occurs in the human world.

Text 4: *Roman Roads in Britain*

In this account, the phenomenon of the building of many roads by the Romans is identified. The Explanation Sequence then accounts for the significance of the road system to the Roman civilisation. Finally, the result of the large number of miles of Roman roads is discussed. This account, which is typical of historical texts, points out how a phenomenon has evolved over time.

LANGUAGE FEATURES

Learner Task 3

Workshop Task 3

3

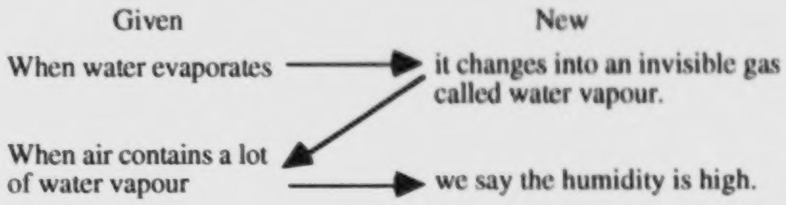
> Look at the text for your subject and consider the following questions:
>
> 1. How is the explanation built up?
>
> 2. Are the human participants individualised or generalised?
>
> 3. What types of verbs — action or relational — are used? What does this mean?
>
> Refer to the Glossary of Language Features, Module Two, for an explanation of Given/New and Verbs.

Commentary

4

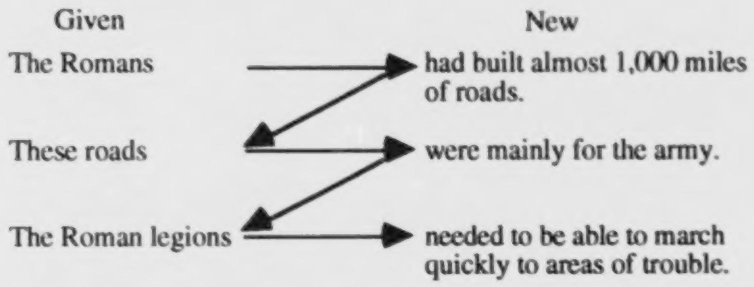
1. **Implication sequences** build new information in the text. They often do this by using the information structure Given and New.

In Text 1 we find the following implication sequence.



Given	New
When water evaporates	it changes into an invisible gas called water vapour.
When air contains a lot of water vapour	we say the humidity is high.

Implication sequence in Text 4:



Given	New
The Romans	had built almost 1,000 miles of roads.
These roads	were mainly for the army.
The Roman legions	needed to be able to march quickly to areas of trouble.

Nominalisation is also a typical feature of explanation. In nominalisation a process is turned into a thing, that is, a verb becomes a noun:

5

Text 1: condense → *condensation*
Text 2: fail → *failure*
Text 3: bushrangers → *bushranging*
Text 4: invade → *invasion*

Noun groups are another language feature which enables concepts and explanations to be built up around nouns.

In Text 2 we find the noun group *an inadequate business recording and accounting system.* If we unpacked this it would read 'Businesses record information and use accounting systems which are inadequate'. Other examples include *lack of managerial experience* and *proper accounting records.*

Noun groups mean more ideas can be packed into a sentence. In this case *business recording and accounting* is classifying *system,* and *inadequate* is describing it further.

Connectives are mainly to sequence events or things in time *(after, while, then, previously)* or to set up conditions in order to show cause and effect relationships (as in Text 3).

Use of technical language. In Text 1, the first paragraph establishes technical terms necessary to understand the explanation: *When the air cannot hold any more water at a particular temperature, we say that the air is* ***saturated*** *or that it has a* ***relative humidity*** *of 100 per cent.* This is in effect translating experience of the world from an everyday understanding to a technical understanding. This language feature is of particular importance in Geography and Commerce.

Question 2. Generalised participants are frequent in explanations, to refer to generic classes of things or events.

In Text 1 we find generalised non-human participants, eg *air, water, water vapour, convection current* etc.

In Text 2 the focus is also on generalised non-human participants, eg *businesses, research, accounting records* and *information.*

In Text 3 the focus is also on generalised human participants *(bushrangers, police and people)* rather than referring to specific individuals.

In Text 4 the historical focus of the account again uses generalised human participants as in Text 3, eg *the Romans, Roman legions, traders* and *Britons.*

Question 3. Explanations about natural events use action verbs in order to build up the events and offer an explanation. However, relational verbs are used to show the relationship between one part of the process and another.

In Text 1 action verbs such as *evaporates, changes, rises,* explain events in the natural world. However, as we noted when looking at this text in the Introduction to the Language Description in Module Two, the use of relational verbs *(is, has, can carry, can hold)*, is central to this genre.

Similarly in Text 2, relational verbs are used to account for the way things are, eg *many reasons for their failure* ***are****, this information* ***is****.*

However in Texts 3 and 4, the historical nature of the accounts draws heavily on the resources of action verbs:

Text 3 — *died out, made, urged*;

Text 4 — *had built, needed, had to march, married.*

This contrast between the types of verbs emphasises that relational verbs deal with a static view of the world, while action verbs deal with a dynamic, changing view of the world.

This knowledge can assist students in their reading as they can anticipate with relational verbs relationships that are stable and unchanging, and see movement in the text through the action verbs.

Summary of language features

- Explanation and account texts share these common language features:
    - use of noun groups, which enable concepts and explanations to be built up around nouns; 6
    - nominalisation, which creates a thing from a process or attribute; 3
    - connectives, mainly about time, to show sequence of events, or to show cause and effect relationships;
    - use of technical language;
    - generalised participants;
    - action verbs to build up events or offer an explanation and relational verbs to show the relationship between one part of the process and another;
    - past tense for specific events and things, eg *Bushranging died out, The Romans had built*;

- the timeless present tense, eg *contains, happens*, to indicate that this holds over time, and not just on a specific occasion;
- the passive is used frequently because in natural phenomena things are acted upon, eg *is condensed, is provided by*.

Learner Task 4

Workshop Task 4

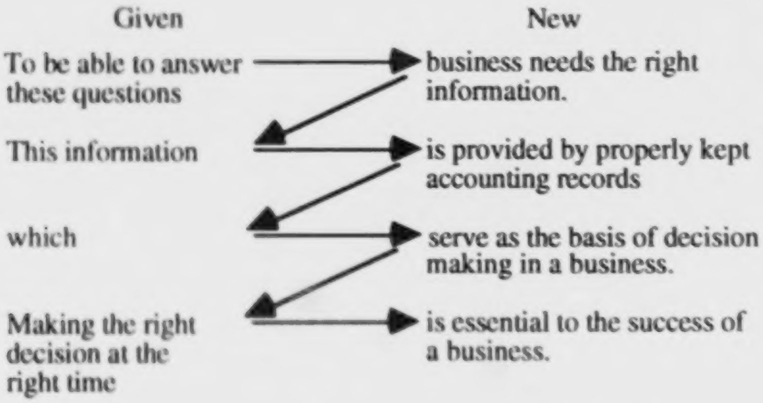
7

8

4

> Look at the paragraph beginning in Text 2, the Commerce text, *To be able......*
>
> Work out the implication sequence as in the previous section using your knowledge of Given/New.

Commentary



Given	New
To be able to answer these questions	business needs the right information.
This information	is provided by properly kept accounting records
which	serve as the basis of decision making in a business.
Making the right decision at the right time	is essential to the success of a business.

Knowledge of the topic is built through an implication sequence. This is a typical pattern in explanation. Teachers can assist students to recognise how knowledge is built and so to track these relationships in reading. Students also often find it difficult to explain things clearly — mastery of this language resource enables them to sequence their own explanations logically.

Learner Task 5

Workshop Task 5

9

> Re-read Text 4 and consider these questions.
>
> 1. The author has not used the word *because*, but many reasons are stated for the building of the roads. Which words in Paragraph 1 imply reasons for building the roads?
> 2. Which word/s indicate that the results are actually results?

Commentary

1. Words such as *need to, as, had to, and, helped provide, once, still needed*, in the passage suggest reasons for building the roads.

   Causes are not always signalled by connectives of causality (Refer to the Glossary of Language Features). Sometimes they are implicit in the text, as in this example, often using verbs and reference, eg *This lead to*....

Students need to be familiar with this way of expressing causality so that they can locate causes while they are reading and express causality in varied ways in their writing.

2. The word *Once* confirms that there were results. As in the answers to Question 1, we see that the reason/result relationship is implied rather than explicitly stated, often leaving students unsure as to how to interpret it.

CONCLUSION

In this description, we have seen the two genres most widely used in Human Society and its Environment to explain phenomena in the natural world and to account for phenomena in the human world. These genres of explanation and account are so similar in purpose that they share the same staging and similar language features. They represent a step in abstraction away from the recount genres which, in the main, do not attempt to interpret events as do explanations and accounts. In the final language description: The language we use for challenging, the genres of argument and discussion will be examined, and we will see a further move in abstraction beyond largely factual reasons, factors or stages as we saw here, to the use of reasons or factors to present or argue a controversial issue or point of view.

The Classroom Units for History, Commerce and Geography, have Parts dealing with explaining.

Before proceeding to them it is recommended that you complete the Teaching/Learning Activity: Dictogloss.

TEXT 1: EXPLANATION (GEOGRAPHY)

1 to 1-2

Water in the atmosphere

When water evaporates, it changes into an invisible gas called water vapour. When air contains a lot of water vapour, we say the humidity is high. At different temperatures, air can hold different amounts of water vapour. When the air cannot hold any more water at a particular temperature, we say that the air is saturated or that it has a relative humidity of 100 per cent. If the air is carrying only three-quarters of the water it is capable of carrying then it has a relative humidity of 75 per cent; if it is carrying half its capacity, then its relative humidity is 50 per cent, and so on. Relative humidity, then, is a measure of the amount of water vapour being carried in air of a particular temperature compared with the total it could carry at that temperature.

At high temperatures, air can carry a great amount of water vapour. When the temperature of the saturated air falls, as it does when it rises in a convection current, the water vapour turns into tiny droplets of water or, as we say, it condenses. Further condensation may lead to the formation of clouds and precipitation in the form of rain, hail or snow.

Our Changing World, Book One,
C. Sale, G. Wilson & B. Friedman, 1980

TEXT 2: ACCOUNT (COMMERCE)

Why do businesses need to keep records?

Many businesses fail within their first two years of operation. Research has shown that the major reasons for their failure are:

a lack of capital;
b lack of accounting information and financial control;
c lack of management skill and experience;
d inability to respond to change.

Underlying many business failures is lack of managerial competence usually in the form of an adequate business recording and accounting system.
Proper accounting records provide business with the information upon which decisions can be made. Records provide businesses with the answers to important questions such as:

a What were total income and expenses for the previous year?
b What are the business's assets and liabilities?
c Is the business carrying too much stock?
d How much do debtors owe the business?
e Which items sold fastest and which sold the slowest?
f Which items were the most profitable?
g Which items had the highest turnover?
h How much ready cash does the business have?

To be able to answer these questions the business needs the right information. This information is provided by properly kept accounting records which serve as the basis of decision making in a business. Making the right decision at the right time is essential to the success of a business. The accounting provides the information to make these informed decisions.

In this chapter we look at some basic accounting concepts and examine how accounting gathers data and produces information which serves as a basis of decision making.

Commerce Two,
B. Parker, T. Clarke, P. Carter, 1988

TEXT 3: ACCOUNT (HISTORY)

THE END OF BUSHRANGING

Bushranging died out for a number of reasons. The invention of the telegraph and the beginnings of modern police methods made the bush telegraph less successful. Newspapers urged the police to rid the country of the evil bushrangers. The sympathy and help of the people lessened, especially as bushranging became more violent. With more police after the bushrangers it was only natural that there would be shoot-outs, and not only bushrangers but also police would be wounded or killed.

Land of the Southern Cross,
M. Bowering, L. Kerr, L. Soper, 1987

TEXT 4: ACCOUNT (HISTORY)

ROMAN ROADS IN BRITAIN

By AD 47, within four years of their invasion, the Romans had built almost 1,000 miles of roads. These roads were mainly for the army. The Roman legions needed to be able to march quickly to areas of trouble, as they did to put down Boudicca's revolt. Army generals had to gather news and send orders speedily, and the roads helped provide reliable supplies of food and reinforcements. Once an area was peaceful, the Romans still needed roads for government and tax collecting. Then traders would begin to use the roads to get grain, animals, metals and other goods to the army camps and the towns.

Once Roman rule was strong, thousands of Roman soldiers, officials, merchants and their families settled in Britain. Roman soldiers married British women, and Britons joined the Roman army. Britain's first true towns and cities began to grow, usually where there was an army camp. The towns had a Roman forum (market square), basilica (council building), baths, theatres, temple and town houses. Town life was impossible without goods for trade, travel and food supplies.

The Romans built altogether more than 6,000 miles of road ways. You can study these roads from many different sources.

Skills in History, Book One, Changes,
P. Shuter & J. Child, 1987

TEXT 1A: EXPLANATION (GEOGRAPHY) STAGES

Phenomenon	**Water in the atmosphere**
Explanation Sequence	When water evaporates, it changes into an invisible gas called water vapour. When air contains a lot of water vapour, we say the humidity is high. At different temperatures, air can hold different amounts of water vapour. When the air cannot hold any more water at a particular temperature, we say that the air is saturated or that it has a relative humidity of 100 per cent. If the air is carrying only three-quarters of the water it is capable of carrying then it has a relative humidity of 75 per cent; if it is carrying half its capacity, then its relative humidity is 50 per cent, and so on. Relative humidity, then, is a measure of the amount of water vapour being carried in air of a particular temperature compared with the total it could carry at that temperature. At high temperatures, air can carry a great amount of water vapour. When the temperature of the saturated air falls, as it does when it rises in a convection current, the water vapour turns into tiny droplets of water or, as we say, it condenses. Further condensation may lead to the formation of clouds and precipitation in the form of rain, hail or snow.

Our Changing World, Book One,
C. Sale, G. Wilson & B. Friedman, 1980

2 to 2-2

TEXT 2A: ACCOUNT (COMMERCE) STAGES

Why do businesses need to keep records?

Phenomenon

Many businesses fail within their first two years of operation.

Explanation Sequence

Research has shown that the major reasons for their failure are:
a lack of capital;
b lack of accounting information and financial control;
c lack of management skill and experience;
d inability to respond to change.

Underlying many business failures is lack of managerial competence usually in the form of an adequate business recording and accounting system.
Proper accounting records provide business with the information upon which decisions can be made. Records provide businesses with the answers to important questions such as:

a What were total income and expenses for the previous year?
b What are the business's assets and liabilities?
c Is the business carrying too much stock?
d How much do debtors owe the business?
e Which items sold fastest and which sold the slowest?
f Which items were the most profitable?
g Which items had the highest turnover?
h How much ready cash does the business have?

To be able to answer these questions the business needs the right information. This information is provided by properly kept accounting records which serve as the basis of decision making in a business. Making the right decision at the right time is essential to the success of a business. The accounting provides the information to make these informed decisions.

In this chapter we look at some basic accounting concepts and examine how accounting gathers data and produces information which serves as a basis of decision making.

Commerce Two,
B. Parker, T. Clarke, P. Cartert, 1988

TEXT 3A: ACCOUNT (HISTORY) STAGES

Phenomenon	THE END OF BUSHRANGING
Explanation Factors	Bushranging died out for a number of reasons. The invention of the telegraph and the beginnings of modern police methods made the bush telegraph less successful. Newspapers urged the police to rid the country of the evil bushrangers. The sympathy and help of the people lessened, especially as bushranging became more violent. With more police after the bushrangers it was only natural that there would be shoot-outs, and not only bushrangers but also police would be wounded or killed.

Land of the Southern Cross,
M. Bowering, L. Kerr, L. Soper, 1987

TEXT 4A: ACCOUNT (HISTORY) STAGES

Phenomenon	ROMAN ROADS IN BRITAIN
Explanation Factors	By AD 47, within four years of their invasion, the Romans had built almost 1,000 miles of roads. These roads were mainly for the army. The Roman legions needed to be able to march quickly to areas of trouble, as they did to put down Boudicca's revolt. Army generals had to gather news and send orders speedily, and the roads helped provide reliable supplies of food and reinforcements. Once an area was peaceful, the Romans still needed roads for government and tax collecting. Then traders would begin to use the roads to get grain, animals, metals and other goods to the army camps and the towns.
Results	Once Roman rule was strong, thousands of Roman soldiers, officials, merchants and their families settled in Britain. Roman soldiers married British women, and Britons joined the Roman army. Britain's first true towns and cities began to grow, usually where there was an army camp. The towns had a Roman forum (market square), basilica (council building), baths, theatres, temple and town houses. Town life was impossible without goods for trade, travel and food supplies. The Romans built altogether more than 6,000 miles of road ways. You can study these roads from many different sources.

Skills in History, Book One, Changes
P. Shuter & J. Child, 1987

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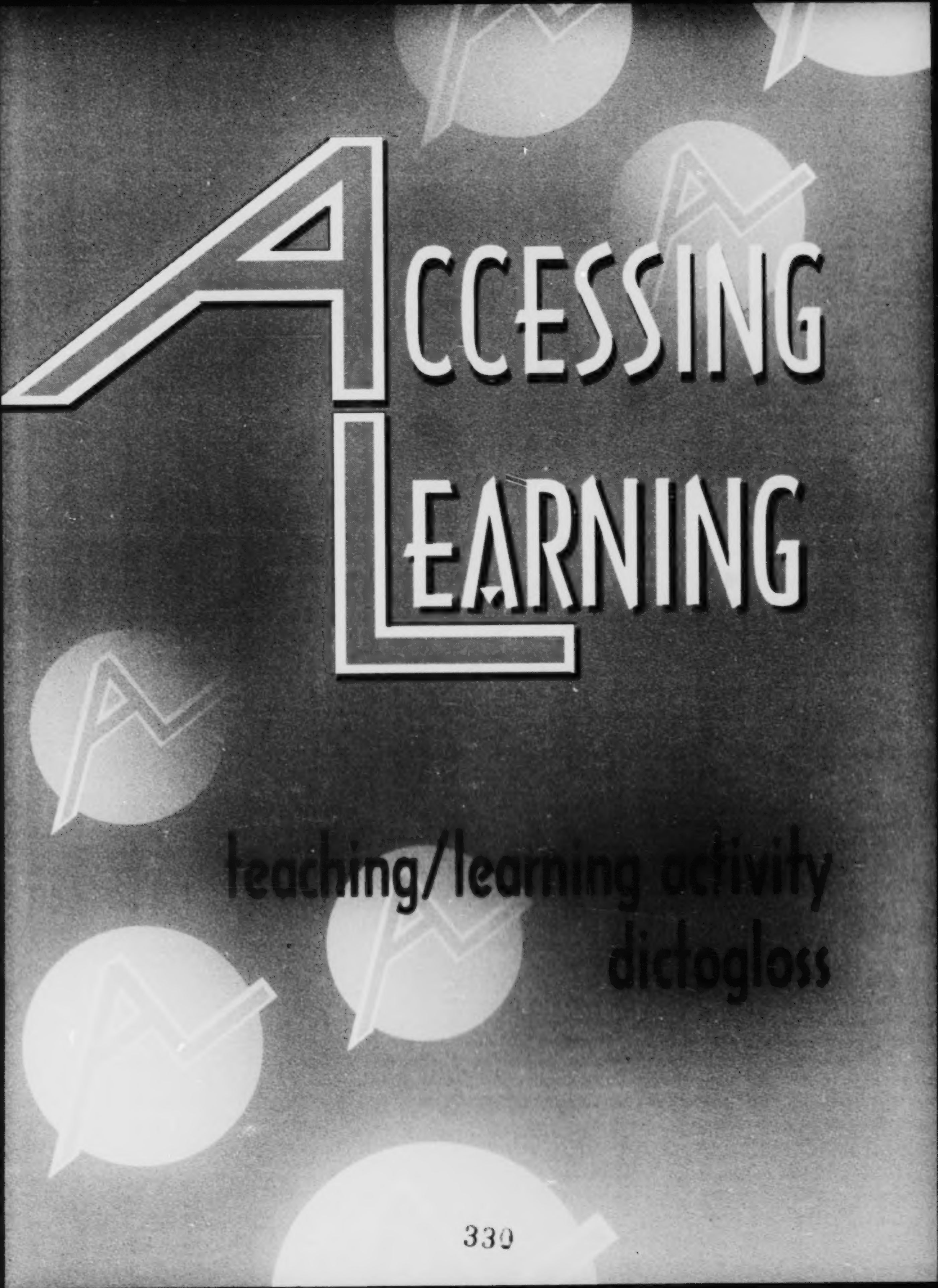

ACCESSING LEARNING

teaching/learning activity dictogloss

DICTOGLOSS

Learner Task 1

Workshop Task 1

1

> What do you understand by the term *dictation* ?
>
> Read the following passage that describes an alternative approach.
>
> In what ways does it differ from traditional dictation ?

Description of a dictogloss

1

Dictogloss is an activity in which short pieces of language are read out at normal speed to students. The students take down the key words and then attempt to reconstruct their passage from the general understanding or gist of the text and from their notes. The task of reconstructing the text in their own words requires the students to consciously focus on their knowledge of the content and the relationship between ideas and words, and is dependent upon small group interaction since the students do not work alone in the reconstructions, but pool their key words and understanding to complete the task.

PROCEDURE

The procedure is as follows:

2

1. Students are prepared for the dictogloss through:
   - explanation of the procedures of a dictogloss and practice in noting key words (first time only);
   - discussion of the content, to evoke schemata.
2. A short text is read to students at normal speed.
3. The text is read again and students take note of key words and phrases.
4. Working in small groups, the students pool their notes and attempt to reconstruct a version of the text that contains the main ideas of the text and approximates the generic staging and language choices of the passage.
5. Various versions are discussed, and the students can adjust their own text in the light of the discussion. One means of doing this is to have students write their version of the text on the board. If, for example, students are working in four groups, divide the board into four columns and ask one student from each group to enter his/her version of the text down one column. This enables the students and teacher to draw on all four versions to decide on the best final text.

Alternatively, OHTs (one per group) can be used. It is useful for the teacher to prepare for this phase of the lesson by considering the most important language features of the text, so as to be prepared to focus on them with the students.

Commentary

Dictogloss differs from dictation in that it requires active engagement with the text. Students are required to actively employ their knowledge of the topic and of language to make appropriate choices. The content of the text is not somehow out there, separate from the way the text is constructed; the generic stages and language choices must be appropriate to accurately reconstruct the content.

The group-work perspective requires active negotiation of meaning between students, allowing them to experiment with their growing control over the appropriate language forms. Working together during the text reconstruction encourages students to verbalise and think through the grammatical choices they are making and assess the effects that each choice has on the emerging text. Together they are developing strategies for editing their work as they write, and skills in expressing content in the most appropriate way as they come to mutually acceptable decisions.

Dictogloss provides an interesting way to lead students to re-read a short text many times, emphasising important content at the same time as heightening awareness of language resources. The note-taking component of the activity provides an additional benefit.

Learner Task 2

In order to examine the dictogloss procedure more closely, let us draw on the example in the following box, which was taken from a text book and used with a Year 8 Geography class.

1. How would you prepare students to tackle the dictogloss?
2. Attempt to anticipate the language your students may struggle with in this dictogloss.
3. Write a list of these words or phrases and account for the difficulty.

Workshop Task 2

Where does the salt come from?

When large trees are left growing, the salty underground water table remains at a fairly constant level. It usually does not rise after rainfall, because the roots of the trees absorb other water as it filters through the soil. If these large trees are cut down, the roots are no longer there to absorb water from the rainfall. Instead the water seeps down through the soil to the water table below. As there is now more water reaching it, the level of this salty water table rises, bringing salt with it. Eventually the salt can rise as high as the surface of the soil.

Australia Core Geography,
J. Butler and G. Kleeman, 1992

Commentary

If this is the first time dictogloss has been used with the class, the students will need to be prepared for the dictogloss procedure itself, through explanation of the procedure and practice in noting key words.

They will also need to be prepared for the context of salination; in other words, they need to have appropriate schemata in place before the dictogloss is read (see Introduction to the Teaching /Learning Cycle: Module One). One way to do this would be to brainstorm vocabulary and information around the title: *Where does salt come from?* (This strategy of prediction of schemata from a title is also a valuable strategy to assist reading.)

In order to be prepared for some of the difficulties students might encounter in the reconstruction of this dictogloss, let us look at a reconstructed version from a group of Year 8 students.

Where do we get salt from?

3

4

Where do we get salt from? If we don't cut down large trees, the water table under the ground stays at the same level. It won't rise after it rains, because the roots of the trees do drink in the water as it goes through the soil. But when large trees are cut down, then the roots aren't there any more So when it rains, the water runs through the soil to the water table. Now there is more water down there and the water table with the salt in it rises. It brings the salt up with it, sometimes right up to the surface.

This group of students has sequenced the ideas correctly, building up a logical explanation of the appearance of salt on the surface of the soil. They have used a selection of connective devices to assist the sequencing. They have also used the timeless present tense to explain a generalised phenomenon even though the explanation is following through a sequence in time.

In these ways they have constructed a text which adequately explains the process of salination. Nevertheless, they have not reproduced the text using the most appropriate language choices. (These language choices, or register variables, can be revised in Module Two.)

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For example, if we look at the original text, we see that the writer has packed the text tightly, that is, has used noun groups to make the writing sound both technical and written-like. Examples of noun groups are *salty underground water table* and *a fairly constant level*. In neither case were the students able to take advantage of this language resource. During the stage of the dictogloss where all the student versions are being examined, the teacher would be able to draw attention to these noun groups, helping students to assemble them and encouraging them to be aware of how to unpack their meaning when reading, and to use them when writing.

The student version is also made more spoken-like by a lack of technical vocabulary. An example of this is the word *absorbs* which perhaps should have been emphasised in the preparation session before the passage was read. Coupled with this is the tendency for the students not to draw on the resource of nominalisation. For example, the original text uses *rainfall* where the students use *when it rains*. Had the text been taken from writing intended for older students, we would perhaps have seen the importance of this language resource even more clearly, with words such as *salination* and *absorption* presenting possible difficulties for students.

An explanation of a natural phenomenon should only involve non-human participants, if the tenor is to be formal. In the student version however, we find *where do we get salt from?* and *If we don't cut down large trees*. Again, the teacher can use the opportunity dictogloss provides to show students how to move from the personal to the impersonal by moving the focus onto the non-human participant (sometimes by using the Theme position, at other times by using the passive voice, eg *when large trees are left growing*).

This group of Year 8 students has managed to build up a logical explanation. However, this is not always an easy thing for a student to do.

As we saw in the language description, explanations are often built up using the Given/New structure (refer to the Glossary of Language Features in Module 2 for an explanation of Given/New).

Learner Task 3

Draw the Given/New structure that would be used to assist a group of students who were having difficulty clearly explaining the process of salination.

Workshop Task 3

5

Commentary

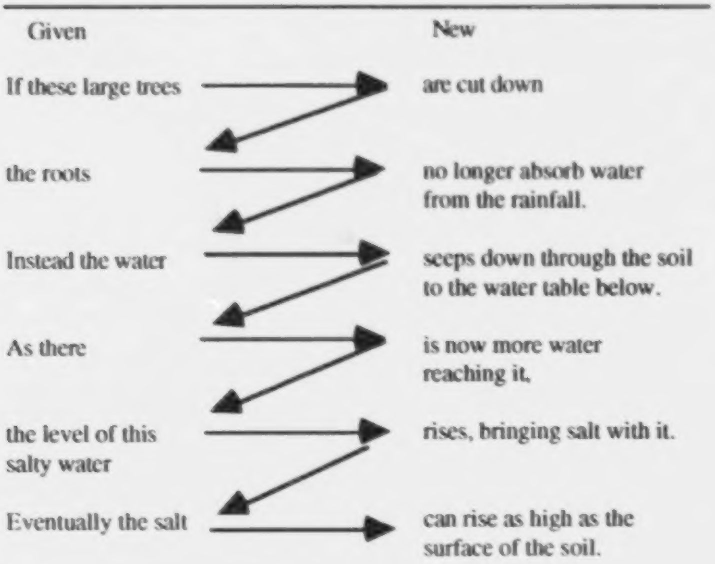
You will notice in the Given/New discussion below that there is a line drawn half-way down the text.

In the first section a 'normal' water table description is outlined. It does not use the classic zigzag pattern of explanation (which is why no arrows have been drawn). Instead, it relies on the repetition of words (*trees → trees*), and reference *(the salty underground water table → it)*. This is contrasted with the second section which draws upon information that has been built up in the opening section in order to explain the consequences of certain actions on the water table. The text uses the typical zigzag pattern of Given/New to explain how the level of salt in the ground rises.

Where does salt come from?

4

When large trees	are left growing
the salty underground table	remains at a fairly constant level
It	usually does not rise after rainfall
because the roots of the trees	absorb the water
as it	filters through the soil



Given	New
If these large trees	are cut down
the roots	no longer absorb water from the rainfall.
Instead the water	seeps down through the soil to the water table below.
As there	is now more water reaching it,
the level of this salty water	rises, bringing salt with it.
Eventually the salt	can rise as high as the surface of the soil.

Another classic feature of explanations that can be seen in this text is the use of connectives that show the logical relationships between ideas eg:

Time — *when, as, eventually*
Cause — *because, as*
Condition — *if*

From a language perspective, students are required to approximate the text through the following:

- logical sequencing of ideas (stages);
- appropriate approximation of the language choices of register variables for field, tenor, and mode.

Field

Students will need to recognise and understand the vocabulary in order to use it in the reconstruction.

Tenor

Students will also attempt to model the tone of the text; for instance, a report on automation in our factories will use impersonal, technical language, while an argument for full automation of all industry will require the use of persuasive language.

Mode

Students will need to approximate the written-like tone of the text using such grammatical resources as noun groups and nominalisation.

Working in groups, the students were able to control the generic staging and some of the register variable choices sufficiently to reconstruct a text which adequately explains the process by which salt rises to the surface. During the group-work session which produced this text, the students would have had to integrate their knowledge of the content with their grammatical knowledge in order to be able to construct a logical explanation. The necessity to articulate the editing process as they negotiated the construction of the text has forced them to consciously consider the choices they made.

By providing helpful comments as groups work and then later by guiding the whole class through the final text adjustment, the teacher can assist students to increase the repertoire of resources at their disposal. Dictogloss is a particularly useful activity to use during the modelling phase of a unit of work, allowing students to focus on both the content, stages and language features of a text. As in the teacher-led construction phase of the teaching/learning cycle, the teacher can explicitly assist students to express subject-specific content through more appropriate language choices.

POINTS TO REMEMBER

- Choose a short text which deals with important content and highlights significant language features.
- Remember that the unique strength of dictogloss lies more in the way it encourages students to express themselves precisely, (that is, to make active language choices from the bank of suggestions made by the group), than it does in the secondary benefits of developing listening and note-taking skills.
- Adequately prepare the context of the activity and its content.
- Prepare yourself adequately for the language difficulties which your students may encounter, so that you can confidently point them in the direction of improving their version of the text as the editing process unfolds.
- This is not an exercise in memory, or in getting it right, but rather an exercise in emphasising the importance of making conscious language choices to achieve appropriate writing in terms of content, sequencing and register choices.

INTO PRACTICE

1. How would you use dictogloss in your own subject?
2. What do you see as the particular benefits or limitations of dictogloss to your classroom?

It is suggested that you now move on to the Classroom Unit for your subject before progressing to Module Seven.

ACCESSING LEARNING

module eight

LANGUAGE AND LITERACY DEVELOPMENT IN KEY LEARNING AREAS

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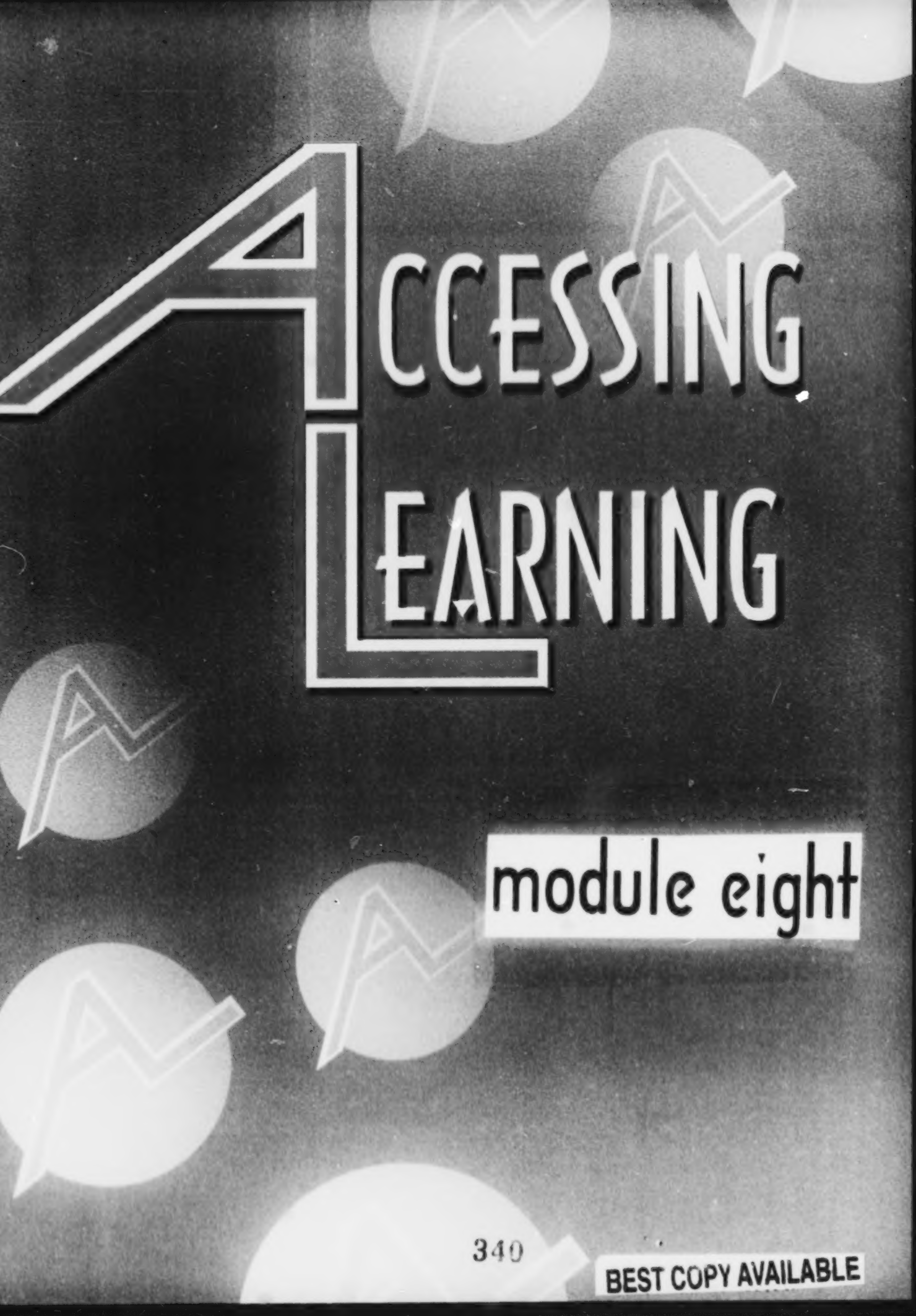

ACCESSING LEARNING

module eight

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Printed and published by the Catholic Education Office, P.O. Box 217, Leichhardt NSW 2040.
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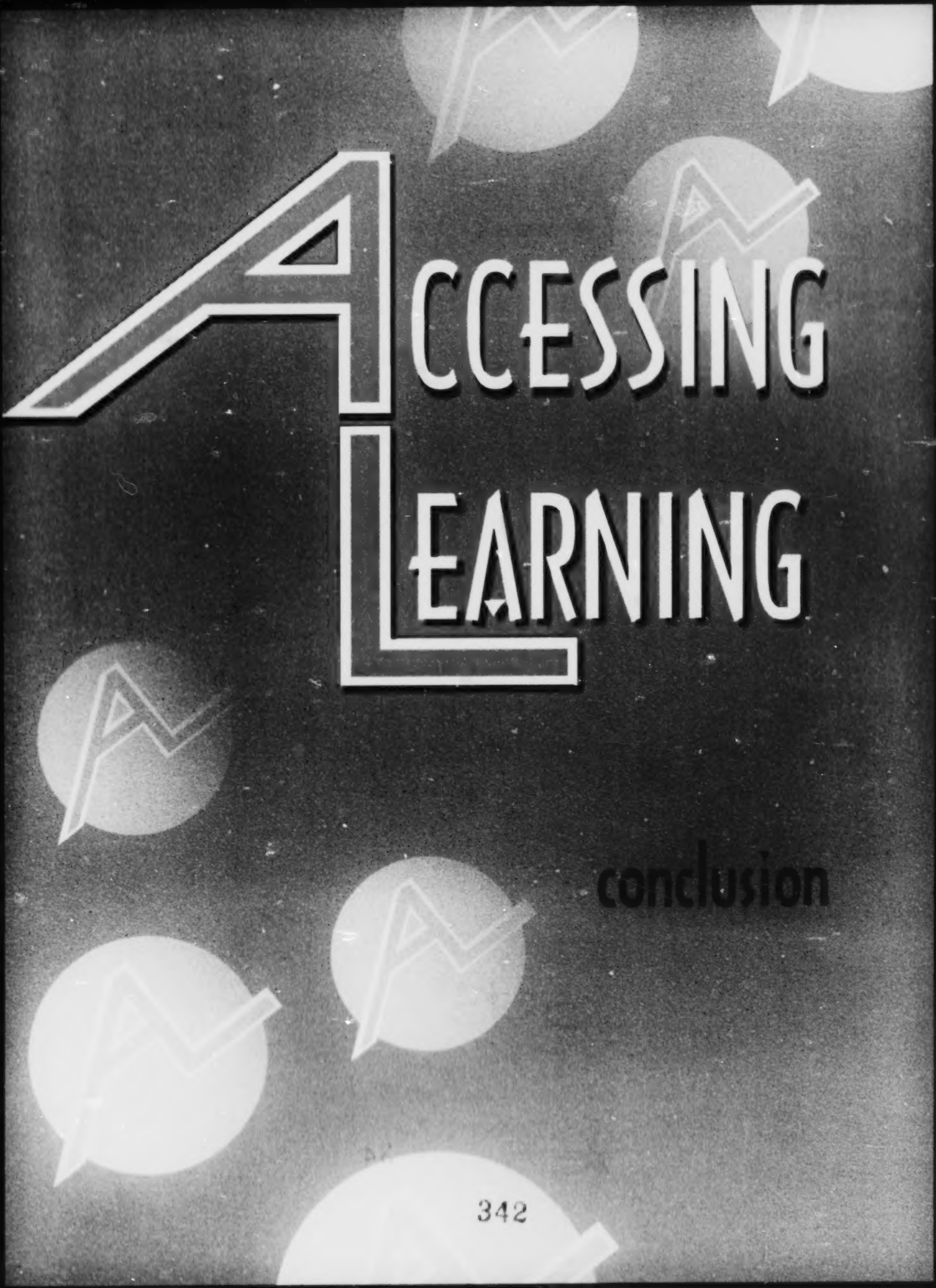

ACCESSING LEARNING

conclusion

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REVISITING THE TEACHING/LEARNING CYCLE 1

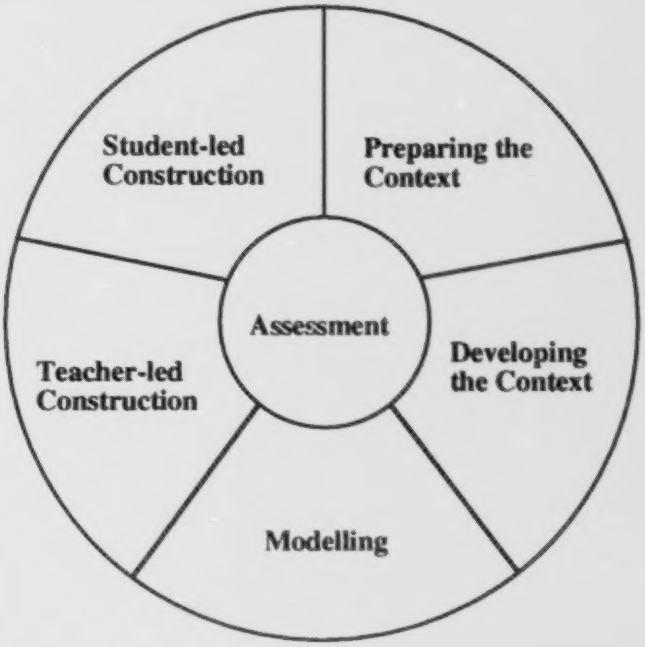
REVISITING THE LANGUAGE DESCRIPTION 3

MACRO-GENRES 5

CONCLUSION 13

REVISITING THE TEACHING/LEARNING CYCLE

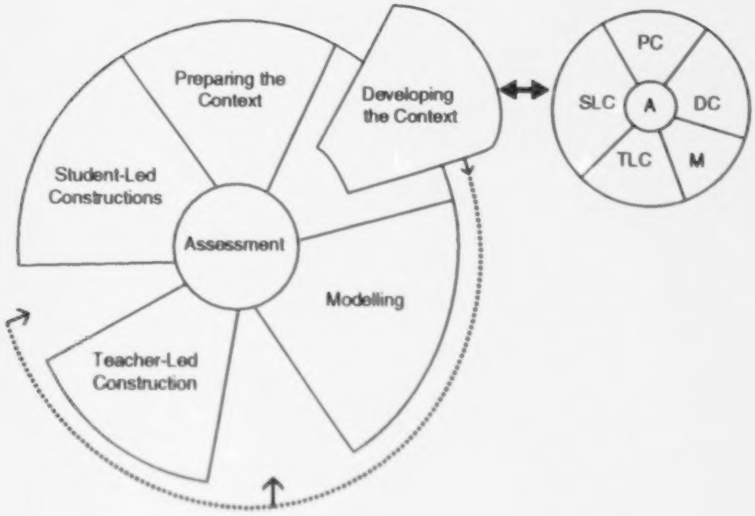
In the introductory session you were introduced to the Teaching/Learning Cycle in its simplest form:


Student-led Construction
Preparing the Context
Assessment
Developing the Context
Teacher-led Construction
Modelling

1

As you became more familiar with its use, you were introduced to the concept of an embedded cycle which was a means of reinforcing skills such as definitions and surveys necessary to successfully tackle the Developing the Context segment of the cycle.

In Video 2: Design and Technology and in the Classroom Units you were introduced to the movement of the Developing the Context segment into other positions in the cycle. This is typically needed to build up extra knowledge for students prior to the Teacher-led and/or Student-led Construction.


Preparing the Context
Developing the Context
Student-Led Constructions
Assessment
Modelling
Teacher-Led Construction
PC
SLC
A
DC
TLC
M

2

1

Learner Task 1

Workshop Task 1

Coordinator to direct workshop participants.

> Revisit the complete Classroom Unit for your subject. Using the Overview pages, locate the occasions when the teaching/learning cycle was used in its extended form.

Once you are familiar with the purpose of each segment of the Teaching/Learning Cycle you can make informed decisions about the emphasis you give to each segment of the cycle in each different classroom context.

If students are supported through this kind of approach on an ongoing basis it should become possible to reduce dependence on the use of the Modelling and even perhaps the Teacher-led Construction segments of the cycle. By regularly assessing students, informally and formally, the teacher will be able to ascertain how much emphasis needs to be placed on modelling or jointly constructing a text with students.

In other words, the underlying aim of this approach is to develop students who are capable of tackling texts and written tasks independently, using the skills of model deconstruction and editing which have been encouraged in them through the consistent use of a language focus by their teachers across curriculum areas.

REVISITING THE LANGUAGE DESCRIPTION

Accessing Learning has presented the five macro-functions for which we use language in the classroom.

Describing

Recounting

Instructing

Explaining

Challenging

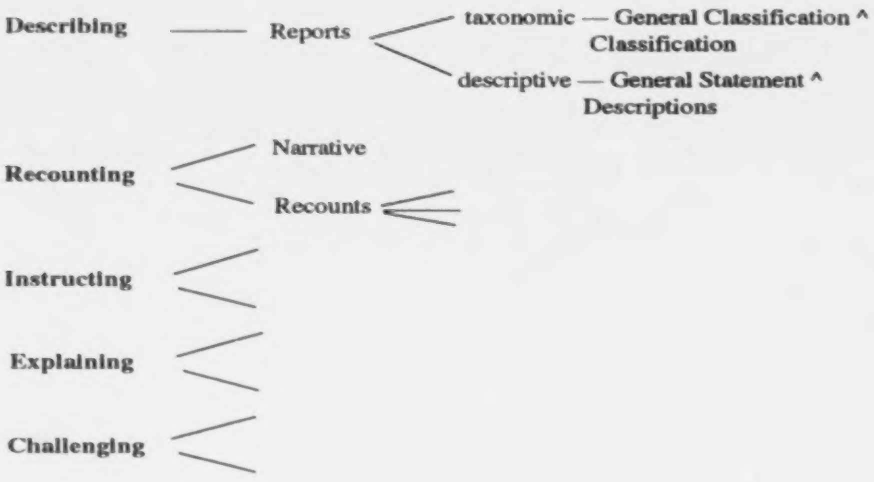
Learner Task 2

Workshop Task 2

As a means of revising the relationship between the macro-functions and their corresponding genres and stages, fill in the taxonomy below. The first has been completed for you.

2

3

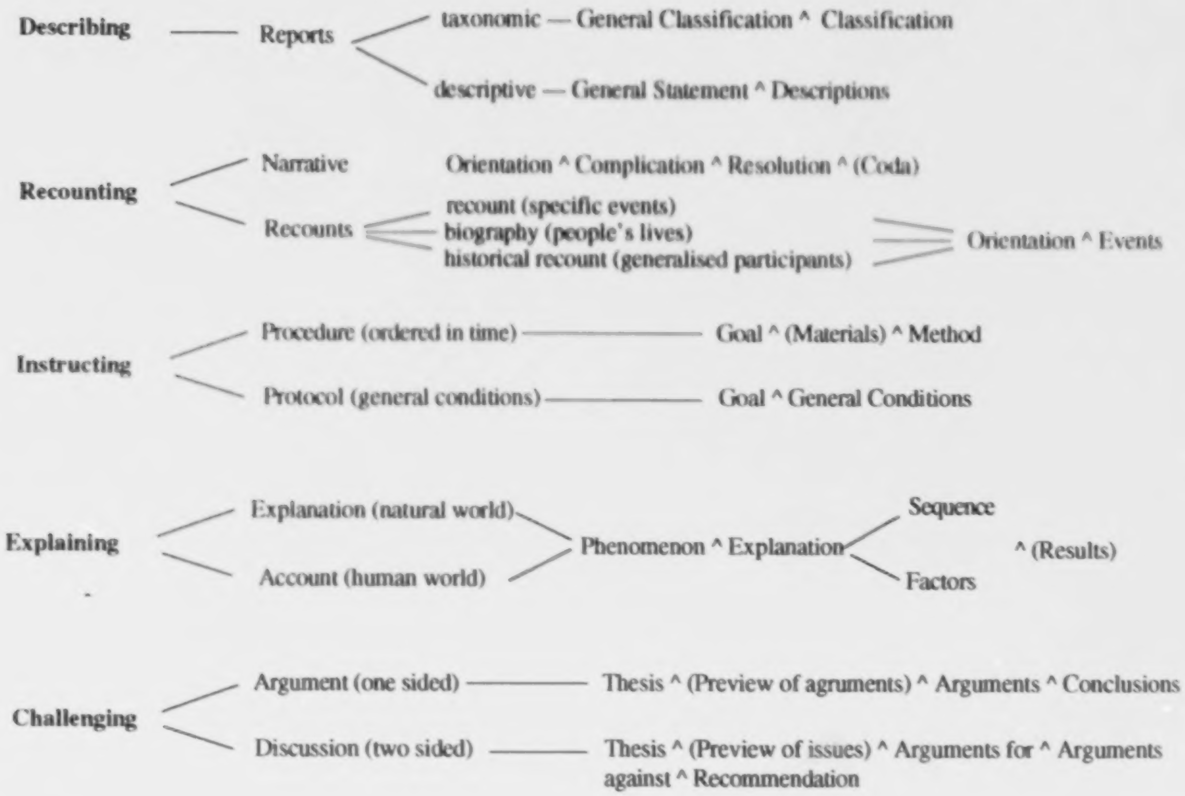

Describing
Reports
taxonomic — General Classification ^ Classification
descriptive — General Statement ^ Descriptions
Recounting
Narrative
Recounts
Instructing
Explaining
Challenging

If you have any difficulty in completing this taxonomy you should return to the language descriptions of Modules Three to Seven to revise.

4

3

COMPLETED MACRO-FUNCTION TAXONOMIES



Describing — Reports
- taxonomic — General Classification ^ Classification
- descriptive — General Statement ^ Descriptions

Recounting
- Narrative — Orientation ^ Complication ^ Resolution ^ (Coda)
- Recounts
  - recount (specific events)
  - biography (people's lives)
  - historical recount (generalised participants)
  - — Orientation ^ Events

Instructing
- Procedure (ordered in time) — Goal ^ (Materials) ^ Method
- Protocol (general conditions) — Goal ^ General Conditions

Explaining
- Explanation (natural world)
- Account (human world)
- — Phenomenon ^ Explanation
  - Sequence
  - Factors
  - ^ (Results)

Challenging
- Argument (one sided) — Thesis ^ (Preview of agruments) ^ Arguments ^ Conclusions
- Discussion (two sided) — Thesis ^ (Preview of issues) ^ Arguments for ^ Arguments against ^ Recommendation

MACRO-GENRES

Throughout the course we have provided textbook samples which show the genres and their stages. However, you will probably have noticed that sometimes writers choose to use a variety or blend of genres in a piece of writing if it suits their purpose. This creative blending of genres can be an effective writing tool, although it may prove problematic for students in their reading and not provide easily accessible models for their writing. Students often try to emulate these more complex ways of writing without sufficient knowledge of the simpler forms. Their attempts may lead them to make inappropriate and inaccurate language choices in their writing.

Texts seldom exist in isolation. In education they are often part of a chapter in a textbook or part of a larger assignment in student writing. Each text is then really only one section within a larger text. This joining together of genres to form a larger piece of writing is called a macro-genre (see Introduction to the Language Description Module Two).

For an example, look at Text 7 (Geography) in The Language We Use for Instructing in Module Five. In this textbook extract we saw a section of a chapter where the primary purpose was to list a protocol. However, the author needed to include a substantial report section and graphic information in order to build up knowledge for the students. This is a typical pattern used to get information across to students. It reinforces the relationships between genres, texts and their contexts.

Learner Task 3

Workshop Task 3

5

The following text *Plastics* was written by a classroom teacher for a Year 9 Geography class. It is a synthesis of information from a variety of interest group publications. The teacher has tried to draw together in a manageable form all the relevant information and uses to do with plastics.

The text is typical of information presented to students in teacher-prepared materials or in textbooks. It is a macro-genre consisting of five main sections:

- a report;
- two accounts; and
- two arguments.

Read the text. Identify the five sections and attempt to label each as one of the genres listed above.

4 to 4-3

PLASTICS

If you were asked to close your eyes and imagine and then list the contents of your local rubbish dump many of you would have plastic products close to the top of your list. While it is true that Australians use approximately one million tonnes of plastics per annum, (that's about 74 kilograms per person), plastic goods make up only 10% of landfill refuse. Paper and paper products actually make up a huge 40% – 50% of the waste materials found in any refuse dump. Despite this fact, plastics are blamed for polluting our environment. Is their bad reputation justified?

Types of plastics

There are more than 50 different types of plastics. Some of the most commonly used plastics are:

(a) **PE Polyethylene** (used for shrink wrapping on trays of packaged goods, eg meat)

(b) **PET Polyethylene terephthalate** (used for soft drink bottles)

(c) **HDPE High Density Polyethylene** (used for plastic milk bottles)

(d) **PP Polypropylene** (used for car battery covers)

(e) **PS Polystyrene** (used for refrigerator liners)

(f) **PVC Polyvinyl chloride** more commonly called vinyl (used for credit cards).

Plastics are made mainly from oil, natural gas and coal.

The advantages of plastic

In today's society plastics can be found everywhere. Probably your school bag, drink container and lunch box are all made from plastics. Perhaps the chair you are sitting on is plastic. Even the clothing you are wearing could contain plastics in some form. Why has the use of plastics become so widespread?

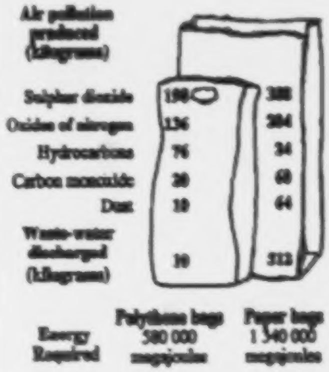
Plastics are convenient and practical. They are light in weight, good electrical insulators, resistant to moisture and chemicals and can be moulded into finished products which are light and strong. Plastics are a good packaging material. They protect products, are lighter, take up less space and are easier to transport than other types of packaging.

They are also relatively cheap to produce. It has been estimated that the cost of packaging any average product would increase by 200% if plastics were not used.

The manufacture of plastics is energy efficient when compared to some other materials. It takes less energy to make a PET drink bottle than a returnable glass bottle, less energy to make plastic pipe than steel pipe and, as the illustration shows, less energy to make a polyethylene shopping bag than a paper bag. Just 2% of the oil and natural gas consumed in Australia is used for the manufacture of plastics.

cont.

The manufacture of plastic products causes less pollution than the manufacture and use of some other products. Compare the air pollution caused by the manufacture of plastic and paper carrying bags as shown in the illustration. Compare too, the manufacture and use of plastic (HDPE) milk containers with the manufacture and use of glass or cardboard containers. Plastic causes less than one third the amount of carbon dioxide of cardboard containers, and less than half caused by glass, even if the glass is recycled ten times. (Carbon dioxide is a gas which is a major contributor to the greenhouse effect.) In addition, no CFCs (chlorofluorocarbons which damage the earth's ozone layer) are produced in the manufacture of plastic containers. CFCs are produced however when some foam plastics are manufactured.


Air pollution produced (kilograms)
Sulphur dioxide
Oxides of nitrogen
Hydrocarbons
Carbon monoxide
Dust
Waste-water discharged (kilograms)
190
136
76
20
10
10
388
204
34
60
64
312
Energy Required
Polythene bags 580 000 megajoules
Paper bags 1 340 000 megajoules

The problems of plastic

Plastics are mainly made from a non-renewable energy source — oil, natural gas and coal. These resources will not last forever, and cannot be replaced. We need to conserve our non-renewable resources, but because plastic is so convenient our society uses large amounts of it. For example the average family uses 2000 plastic bags per year.

The biggest problem associated with plastic is litter. Because our society uses so much plastic, and because plastics do not break down easily, the litter can cause problems for a very long time. One problem with litter is that it is ugly and spoils the environment.

A more serious problem is the effect it has on the animals in our environment. This can best be seen in the marine environment.

A major problem is that manufactured plastics, such as plastic drink containers and plastic bags, are thrown from shipping vessels and some of this material finds its way into the stomachs of sea creatures. Pygmy sperm whales and rough-toothed dolphins are just two marine animals that have been found with plastic sheeting or plastic bags in their stomachs. A starving leatherback turtle was found with a ball of plastic blocking its intestines. Fifteen per cent of the world's 280 species of sea birds are known to have ingested, that is swallowed, plastic. Some of these animals starve to death when their stomachs become blocked, while others become weak and ill. Friends of the Earth, an environment group, say that 100,000 marine animals die every year from swallowing plastic wastes.

cont.

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Further problems have been caused by the new plastic fishing nets now in use throughout the world. These nets are more buoyant and therefore stay on or near the surface of the water. They do not disintegrate (that is break up) as the old hemp, cotton or flax nets did. As well, they are nearly invisible under water. Sea breeding animals such as birds, seals and turtles get caught in the plastic nets and drown. In 1980, for example, 2,000 sea turtles drowned off the coast of the USA when they became tangled in nets used for shrimp trawling. Some government officials estimate that 50,000 northern fur seals die each year in the North Pacific as a result of entanglement in fishing gear.

Nets, empty plastic bottles, plastic film, plastic pipes and other materials dumped in our rivers and streams also cause problems for land animals and birds as well as sea creatures. Small animals and birds, such as pelicans, have starved after trapping their bills in the plastic yokes used to package six packs of beer and soft drink. This has lead to some states in the United States of America (USA) banning their use.

The problems of plastics lie with the fact that they are made from non-renewable energy sources, they are not biodegradable (that is they do not break down) and that human beings throw away their rubbish which then finds its way into our oceans, lakes and streams. Have you ever thought about where the plastic wrapping on your sandwiches ends up when you leave it on the beach?

The management of plastic wastes

Some steps are already being taken to recycle plastics. A major chemical company and a soft drink manufacturer in the USA have recently announced plans to introduce a plastic soft drink bottle, made from a blend of recycled plastics, onto the market early in 1992. There are now a number of plants which recycle HDPE milk containers. A plant in Victoria is not only recycling the old bottles, it is able to produce these new milk containers for a price similar to the cost of using new materials. Plants have been established in Australia to recycle PET soft drink containers. They are recycled into products such as windsurfers, plastic paints and filling for cold weather clothing. In France PVC used in the manufacture of mineral water bottles is being used in trials to produce underground drainage pipes for the mains water supply. Smorgon Plastics Recycling, a company in Victoria, is using recycled plastic to make a product called Syntal which is a similar to wood. It can be used to make roadside posts, park benches and even walls. The best thing about it is that it can be made from a mixture of all kinds of plastics, which means that plastics do not need to be sorted first.

Those plastics that are not able to be recycled are disposed of in land fill (or rubbish tips). Because plastic is light and can easily be crushed, it takes up less space than other materials such as cardboard or glass. Only 10% of the waste in landfill is plastic compared to over 50% of paper waste. While plastics do not breakdown or degrade in the ground, they do not pollute the ground or water ways as some rubbish can.

cont.

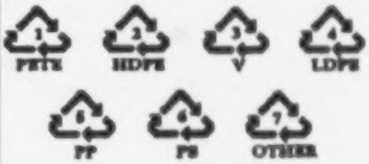
Work is now being done to develop degradable plastics; that is plastics that will break down in either water or sunlight. These are especially suitable for use in agriculture for things such as twine for tying hay bales and for bird netting. At sea they could be used for biodegradable fishing nets.

Japan and some European countries dispose of their plastic wastes through incineration (burning). The energy produced when plastics are burnt on a large scale is used to generate steam, hot water and electricity.

Problems of managing plastic waste

Perhaps the largest problem facing recyclers of plastics is the cost involved. Recycled plastics usually cost between two and five times as much as new materials. This is because the plastics have to be collected, sorted, and cleaned before they can be re-used. Labels, lids, sticky tape and price tags must also be removed.

Another difficulty is that plastics must be separated into categories before they can be recycled. This means, for example, that soft plastic carry bags, must have their handles removed before they can be recycled. The Plastics Industry Association in Australia has introduced a voluntary coding system for plastics, identifying them by resin type. If you look on the bottom of most of your plastic containers you'll probably find one of these symbols :



It is hoped that this will speed up the sorting process. However the labelling is often difficult to read and people need to be educated about this system.

A method of collection needs to be provided for recycling, either through kerbside collection of rubbish or by providing central depots. It means separate collection bins for the different types of plastic. While it is possible to collect the larger and regularly used plastic items, such as plastic drink bottles, it is more difficult to collect the smaller items such as plastic food wrap.

Often it is not possible to recycle plastics. Many places do not have recycling plants and the cost of transporting the used plastics is high. In South Australia for example PET bottles are shredded for use as land-fill at the Wingfield dump because no recycling plant exists.

Plastics buried in land fill do not degrade. So while it might be argued that they take up less space, they will stay there indefinitely.

If plastics are incinerated highly toxic (poisonous) gases can be given off. Incineration also has the disadvantage of releasing dioxides into the atmosphere and so increasing the dangers from the Greenhouse effect.

Conclusion

When all factors are considered it is difficult to say whether the benefits of plastic outweigh the disadvantages. What do you think?

Commentary

The sections of the text and their genres are:

6

Types of plastic — a report
The advantages of plastic — an argument
The problems of plastic — an argument
The management of plastic waste — an account
The problems of managing plastic waste — an account

Learner Task 4

Workshop Task 4

What is the purpose of each of these genres in the context of the whole text? In other words, why has each section been included?

Commentary

The purpose of the report *Types of Plastic* is to provide the background information needed for the rest of the text. The report genre is typically the first section of a longer text.

The Advantages of Plastic is an argument genre listing the arguments for the use of plastic. The following section *The Problems of Plastic* presents the corresponding arguments against the use of plastics.

The next two sections of the text are both accounts, one supporting arguments for the use of plastics, the other supporting arguments against its use.

In this text we see the use of the report genre and the account genre to support the overall purpose for the text, that is, to present an informed and balanced two-sided discussion of the issues involved in the use of plastics.

Students too are often required to build and/or blend genres one upon another in their work. Typically this takes the form of essay projects and long assignments, for example the case study developed in the Classroom Unit for History. The design folio in Design and Technology also requires the students to combine genres to achieve an overall purpose.

Learner Task 5

Workshop Task 5

7

The following essay question taken from a History text book requires the students to use the resources of several genres in their answer and to identify these genres and consider why they are combined in this way.

'Write an essay about $1^1/_2$ pages in length, about trade with Japan. Explain Japan–Australia trade flows and relationships. Consider the importance of this relationship to Australia and the effect, on Australians, of greatly reduced orders from Japan. Advise some of the actions that could be taken in Australia to try to increase the volume of exports Japan buys.'

Australia's Relations with Asia,
P. White and P. Young, 1989

Commentary

This essay would probably result in the use of three different genres:

The instruction, *Explain Japan–Australia trade flows and relationships,* would, in fact, result in a **report**, rather than the expected account suggested by the word *Explain* in the question. This report serves to build up the knowledge required to answer the next section, *Consider the importance of this relationship to Australia and the effect, on Australians, of greatly reduced orders from Japan*. This task would result in an **account** which would explain the importance of the trade relationship without raising controversial issues.

This section in turn provides the background needed for the final **argument** section where the student needs to assume a particular point of view based on the previous two sections.

This progression from report through account to argument moves the students through increasing levels of abstraction and is a typical pattern for macro-genres in textbooks, student work and in syllabus design itself.

As demands of the school curriculum become more complex in our advanced technological environment, the genres themselves will reflect this shift in perspective. This is already becoming evident in subjects such as Geography where the 'greening' of Geography often results in the addition of an **issues** stage to a piece of factual writing. Where previously students might have been asked to examine the relationships between animals and their environment, say the rainforest, through a report, they may now be required to extend this report to provide an additional stage where issues of extinction are explored.

These complex macro-generic texts reflect social change and allow students to extend the traditional requirements of school writing.

> For an advanced technological society such as Australia, our goal must be an active literacy, which allows people to use their capacity to think, create and question, which helps them to become more aware of the world and empowers them to participate more effectively in society.
>
> International Literacy Year, Paper No. 1, ILY Secretariat, 1989

CONCLUSION

Learner Task 6

Workshop Task 6

8 to 8-1

Consider again the quotes below from Module One.

Do you feel more confident in your ability to address the language issues raised in these comments now that you have completed *Accessing Learning*?

Teacher/*Student*

comment - Much clearer, Mohummad.
response - *Much clearer than what? Is my handwriting improving?*

comment - 5/10 Your argument is not well constructed, Bruce.
response - *So what is good construction?*

comment - C plus, Cathy, your writing is too informal.
response - *But I don't know any other way to write!*

comment - 4/10 Answer the question.
response - *It doesn't matter what the questions says, I just write everything I know anyway.*

comment - This isn't good essay style.
response - *I write this way in English and it's OK, so what's wrong with it for History?*

comment - 6/10 Try harder Josephine.
response - *How? You've never shown us.*

comment - You have missed the point in some places Luke.
response - *Which places?*

comment - B plus, good effort Ming Lee.
response - *But why is it different to the one I did last time? I only got a C for that.*

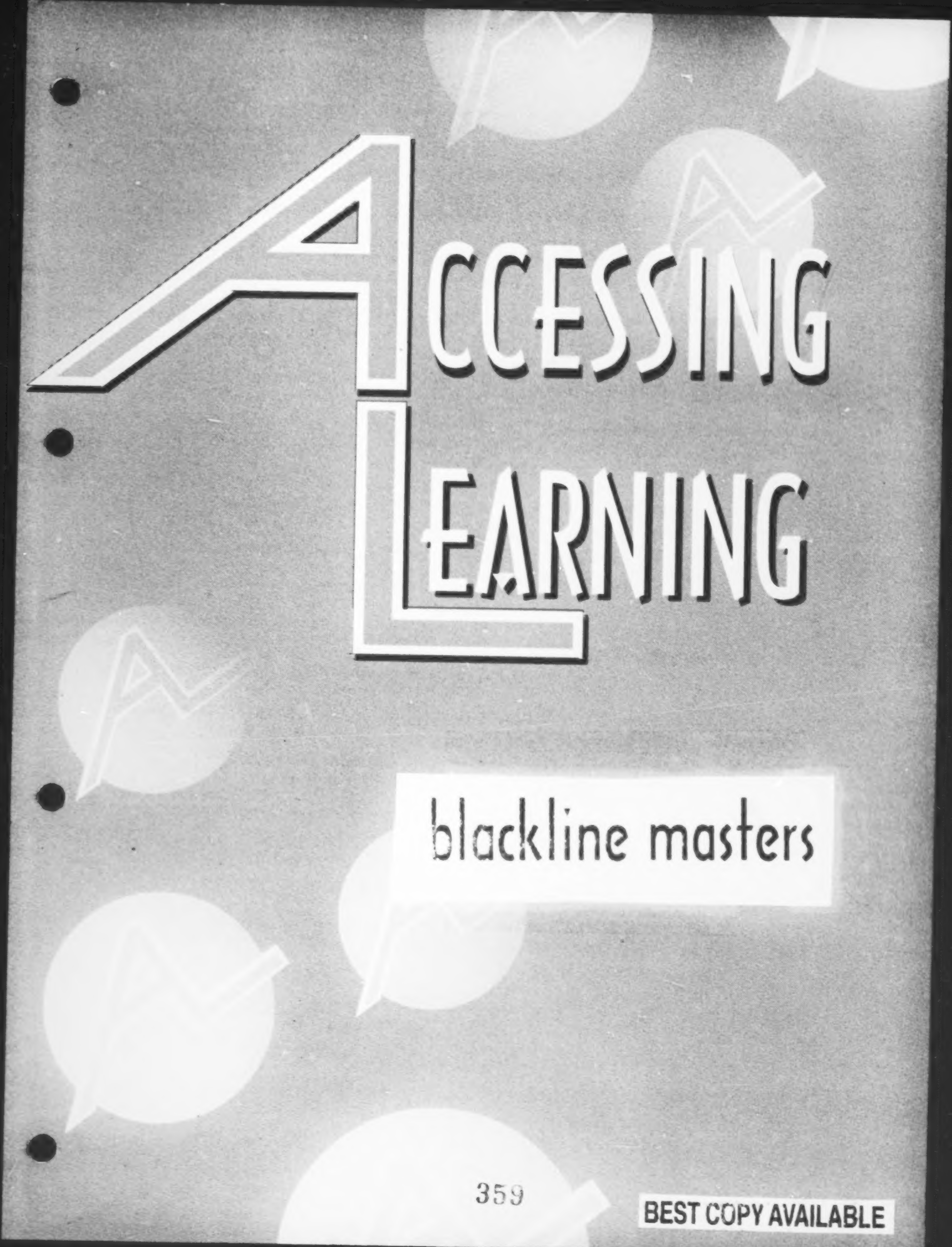
comment - Your ideas are a bit confusing. 6/10
response - *Yeah, well so was the question!*

comment - 7/10 Be more careful, Kim.
response - *Careful of what?*

Commentary

The comments are typical teacher comments. Most attempt to explain what the problem is in the students' writing but do not show the students how to make the necessary changes to make their writing successful.

By providing teachers with a range of language tools, *Accessing Learning* will enable them to confidently address the issues identified in the comments.



ACCESSING LEARNING

blackline masters

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Printed and published by the Catholic Education Office, P.O. Box 217, Leichhardt NSW 2040.
Phone (02) 569 6111 Fax (02) 550 0052

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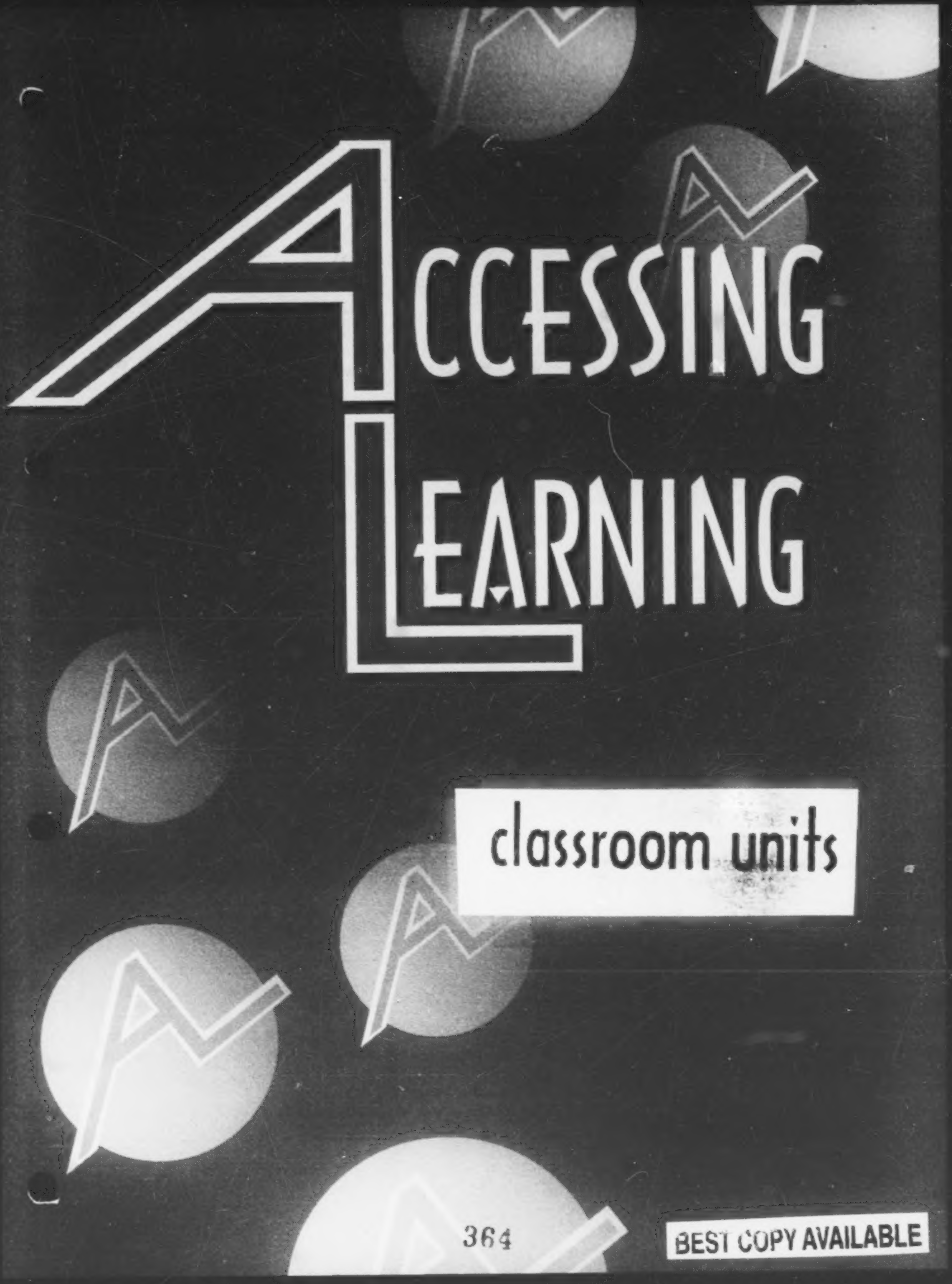

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classroom units

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   - History
   - Geography
   - Design and Technology

ISBN 1 86382 051 5 (The complete kit)
1 86382 052 3 (The Outline and all Modules)
1 86382 053 1 (The Blackline Masters)

Funded through the Literacy and Learning General Element, Commonwealth Department of Employment, Education and Training.

Printed and published by the Catholic Education Office, P.O. Box 217, Leichhardt NSW 2040.
Phone (02) 569 6111 Fax (02) 550 0052

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INTRODUCTION

The Classroom Units of *Accessing Learning* have been designed to illustrate how the language descriptions and teaching/learning activities of the *Accessing Learning* modules can be integrated into content teaching in History, Geography, Commerce and Design and Technology. They have been written by different teachers, but follow a similar format consisting of teaching/learning cycles incorporating subject content and language activities and followed by resource sheets, for use in the classroom.

The units are in parts. The parts correspond to the macro-functions of the subjects. Each part deals with one macro-function, for example, describing or reporting, in relation to the subject, and should be read at the end of the workshop module that deals with the same macro-function. As Figure 1 shows, the subjects do not all have the same macro-functions.

Macro-functions	History	Commerce	Geography	Design & Technology	**Genres**	**Texts**
Describing	√	√	√	√	reports - taxonomic - descriptive	definitions field work reports descriptions information reports
Recounting	√	√			narratives recount - biography - historical	biographies narratives myths
Instructing		√	√	√	procedures protocols	directions recipes manuals procedures
Explaining	√	√	√		explanation account	explanation essays accounts (how, why)
Challenging	√	√	√	√	arguments discussion	debates essays

Figure 1: The macro-functions, genres and texts of History, Commerce, Geography, Design & Technology

In order to consolidate understanding of the learning cycles in the units, teachers are advised to use the deconstruction proforma (Handout 2) discussed in Module Three as they examine each part.

After you acquaint yourself with the unit for your subject, you might like to trial it in your classroom as it is, or adapt it to meet your particular needs.

You will see that the introductory pages of the Classroom Units consist of Unit Overviews, Unit Outcomes and National Profiles.

Unit Overviews

The introductory Unit Overviews set out the general content of each unit, part by part. There is one part for each of the characteristic macro-functions of the subject. For example, the characteristic macro-functions of Design and Technology are describing, instructing and challenging; there is a part dealing with each of these. The content of each part is set out in a Part Overview page.

Unit Outcomes

Each Classroom Unit lists specific Outcomes in terms of knowledge and understanding, values and attitudes, skills and language. With the exception of the language outcomes, these are drawn from the syllabuses current in NSW at the time of publication (1994). The student language outcomes have been specifically written for these materials. Teachers in NSW will need to adapt the Unit Outcomes in the light of the revised syllabuses for Years 7 - 10, due for release in mid-1995.

National Profiles

The National Profiles developed by the Curriculum Corporation are an attempt to agree on some common outcomes of schooling across Australia. So far, they have not been adopted in their original form across Australia; attempts are being made by the States to express outcomes of schooling in a similar style, but at the same time to incorporate particular State perspectives. So at present the National Profiles do not have exact equivalents in the States. Teachers should check learning outcomes developed for syllabuses in their own State.

The National Profiles cover eight learning areas and show learning progressions through the eight areas. These are expressed as learning outcomes at different levels, that is, demonstrable achievements which students can be expected to attain as they move through the study of a subject. The learning areas of the National Profiles have been divided into Strands. Strands related to the KLAs Human Society and its Environment, and Technological and Applied Studies are shown in *Accessing Learning* at the beginning of each Classroom Unit at the appropriate level for the intended ages of the students for whom the unit is designed.

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ACCESSING LEARNING

classroom sample unit

GEOGRAPHY

LANGUAGE AND LITERACY DEVELOPMENT IN KEY LEARNING AREAS

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UNIT OVERVIEW

This unit of work attempts to address the themes by considering the following: 1) the need to protect and manage environments/waste management in the local environment, and 2) studies of the management of environments involving provision of fresh water, aspects of water conservation and treatment, management of wastes, arguments for and against landfill and garbage recycling.

TOPIC	**Prescribed context**: Waste Management **Additional theme**: Management of environments with links to mandatory theme: Australian Environment and Australian communities.	
PART ONE **Page 7**	*Describing*	Concepts of waste and waste management established. Students conduct a survey on waste management at their school and write a report.
PART TWO **Page 33**	*Instructing*	Students write a procedure for making a compost heap.
PART THREE **Page 53**	*Explaining*	Aspects of water conservation and treatment are explained.
PART FOUR **Page 87**	*Challenging*	The notion of argument is developed and language features of argument are demonstrated through topics such as landfill and garbage recycling. Critical literacy activities are also demonstrated.

UNIT OUTCOMES

KNOWLEDGE AND UNDERSTANDING

By the completion of this unit students should be able to:

- recognise and evaluate management practices in a variety of areas through
  - survey on waste management at school
  - field study of local area
- demonstrate a knowledge of and explain the urgent need to protect and manage environment by such efforts as recycling and composting
- recognise and express informed opinions about the management practices in the provision of fresh water, uses of landfill and packaging.

VALUES AND ATTITUDES

By the completion of this unit students should be able to:

- use their knowledge and understanding of geography to improve their community and their environment
- demonstrate a commitment to improve environmental quality.

UNIT OUTCOMES

SKILLS

By the completion of this unit students should be able to:

- collect and record data for a survey
- initiate and organise the collection of data in a field excursion
- analyse field data
- compile a field report
- read and construct a pie chart
- interpret and critically examine print media material from community sources
- draw conclusions and make valued judgements about approaches to waste management
- work constructively in groups and plan group projects
- suggest appropriate environmental and community improvements such as recycling and composting.

LANGUAGE

By the completion of this unit students should be able to:

- recognise and use appropriate text stages and language choices to construct a survey; write a field report; write procedure, account, argument and discussion essays
- recognise and practise the use of the following language resources:
    - thematisation to move students from personal to impersonal writing
    - connectives to sequence steps in a process and demonstrate logical relationships
    - nominal groups and numeralisation for abstraction and technicality
    - given/new structure in building clear explanations
    - emotive language and modality in constructing an argument.

NATIONAL PROFILES: STUDIES OF SOCIETY AND ENVIRONMENT

GEOGRAPHY

Strand: Place and Space

Level

6.6: Predicts consequences of implementing particular viewpoints on an issue concerning the use of a place.

7.6: Analyses the views of others on issues related to the careful use of a place or space on the Earth's surface to develop and justify own stance.

Strand: Natural and Social Systems

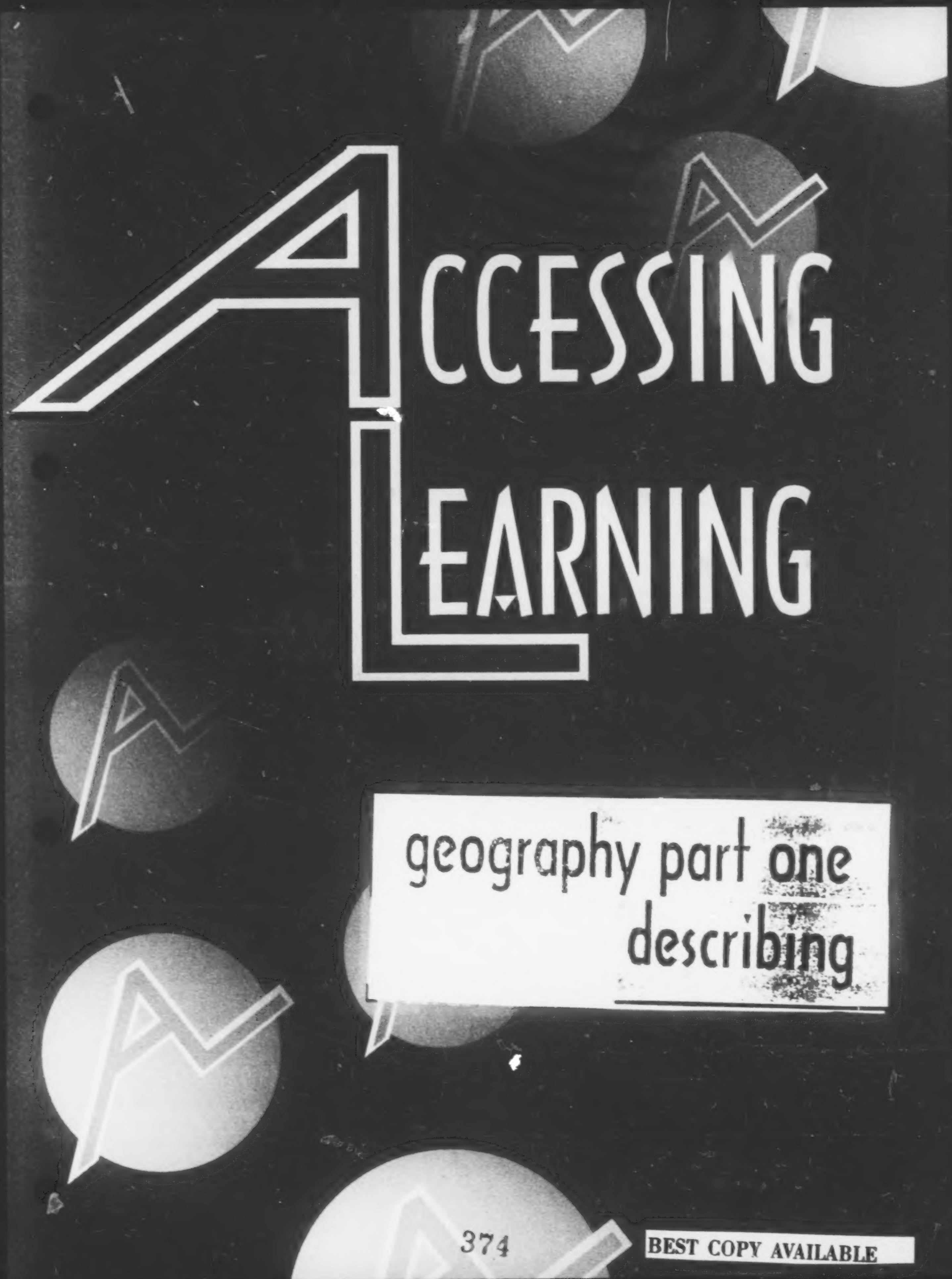
Level Investigation, Communication and Participation

6.17: Discusses the logic of and evidence for an argument or viewpoint.

6.18: Comes to an informed decision through discussing and considering viewpoints and evidence presented by others.

7.16: Uses the methodologies of the learning area to investigate different perspectives on an issue.

7.18: Judges actions of self and others in the light of available choices and avowed value positions.



ACCESSING LEARNING

geography part one describing

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PART ONE OVERVIEW - DESCRIBING

Students establish a need, consider human impact issues, conduct a survey on identification of needs and write a design proposal.

	Content and Tasks	Assessment
Preparing the Context	Teacher explores concepts of waste and waste management.	Informal assessment of students' understanding of concepts
Developing the Context	Teacher and students sort rubbish and develop a pie chart of their findings and a taxonomy of household garbage disposal.	
Embedded Cycle 1 Definitions	*Examines structure of definitions; teacher and students develop definitions of key terms in waste management.*	*Formal assessment of students' ability to write successful definitions and knowledge of a range of definitions*
Embedded Cycle 2 Surveys	*Examines a variety of survey formats; teacher and students develop a survey on waste disposal in the school and develop a matrix for classifying waste observed on a field trip.*	
Modelling	Teacher provides a model field excursion report — sequencing and matching activities.	Informal assessment of students' understanding of concept of stages, ability to break text into stages and recognition of genre-appropriate language choices
Teacher-led Construction	Teacher and students write a report on the survey results.	Informal assessment of students' ability to make use of appropriate text stages and language choices for the conten
Student-led Construction	Students write reports on waste management at their school.	Formal assesment of students' ability to apply knowledge of subject content and successful report writing.
Resource Sheets	Activity sheets and resource sheets are grouped as Resource Sheets at the end of each Part. They are referred to by number in the text.	

PART ONE - DESCRIBING

PREPARING THE CONTEXT

Teacher establishes concepts of waste and waste management through questioning:

- What is waste?
- Why study waste management?

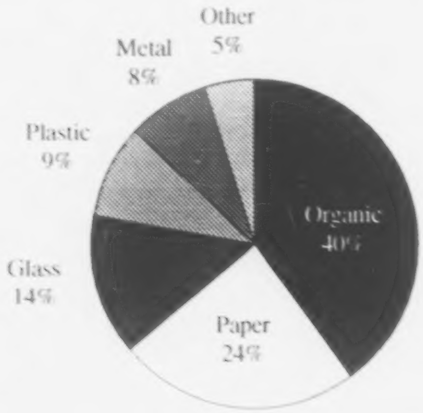
The teacher and students brainstorm and develop **content** words.

DEVELOPING THE CONTEXT

The teacher conducts the following activity:

Bring in a school rubbish bin and, with rubber gloves, go through the bin sorting the rubbish into different categories, eg food, food containers, printed paper, other.

The students and the teacher construct a pie chart using information from the garbage bin activity.

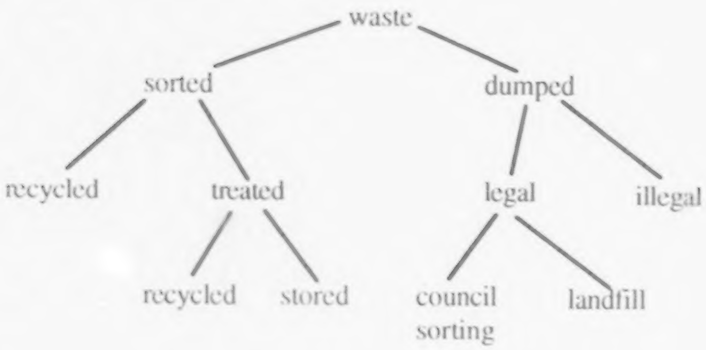


Model pie chart

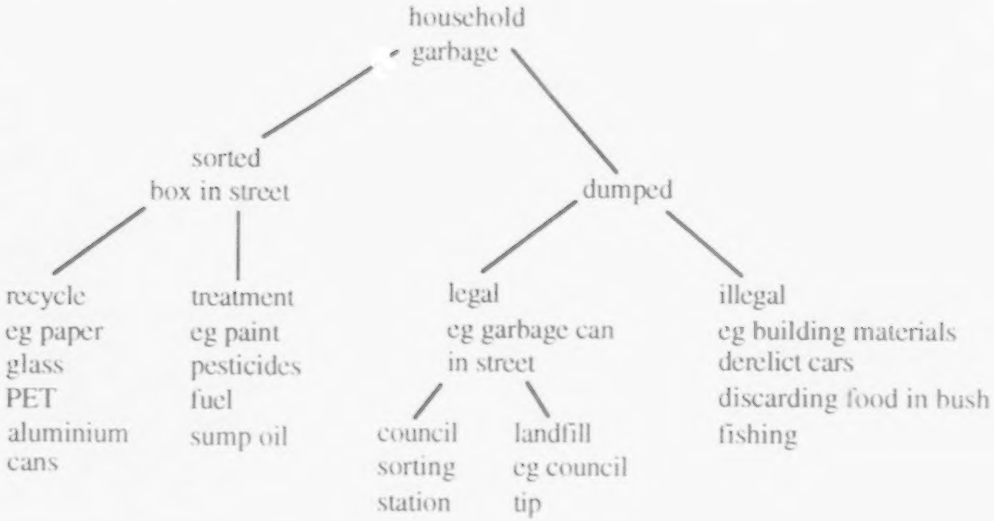
The teacher builds a waste/waste management taxonomy with the class, based on discussion and brainstorming.

Options for Waste Management

Taxonomy 1


waste
sorted
dumped
recycled
treated
legal
illegal
recycled
stored
council sorting
landfill

Taxonomy 2


household garbage
sorted box in street
dumped
recycle eg paper glass PET aluminium cans
treatment eg paint pesticides fuel sump oil
legal eg garbage can in street
illegal eg building materials derelict cars discarding food in bush fishing
council sorting station
landfill eg council tip

These activities could be used as informal assessment tasks. They assess students ability to:

1. construct a pie chart
2. convert text into graphic information
3. organise a taxonomy.

EMBEDDED CYCLE 1 — DEFINITIONS

Preparing the Context

Teacher talks about definitions.

Developing the Context

Teacher talks about building definitions:

- What is waste?
- What is dumping?
- What is recycling?
- What is waste management?

Modelling

Teacher establishes stages of definitions:

NAME ^ CLASS ^ CHARACTERISTICS ^ (EXAMPLES)

Name	**Class**	***Characteristics***	**Examples**
Waste	**is matter**	*discarded or **left over** in the course of industrial, commercial, domestic or other activities*	eg household rubbish, industrial storage

Teacher-led Construction

The teacher will construct some definitions with students.

Resource Sheets 1A - 1C are three versions of the following Table of Definitions, each with different parts blanked out. Students are required to work in threes and fill in their sheet through oral negotiation. This is a communicative activity which develops both content and language skills.

Table of Definitions

1 Biodegradable	is a term	given to a substance which can be broken down by the natural process of decomposition, eg food and paper.
2 Clean fill	is material	consisting of clay, soil, crushed rock, rubble-like and inert mineral filling, up to a maximinum of 20mm in size.
3. Composting	is a method	of recycling any organic materials (materials that are or once were alive)

4 Decomposition	is a process	whereby dead material is broken down and nutrients are put back into the environment.
5. Industrial waste	is waste material	generated by industrial or manufacturing processes.
6. Organic waste	is waste	derived from animal or plant materials.
7. Recycling	is a process	involving the collection and processing of a waste product for use as a raw material in the manufacture of the same product or a similar one.
8. Waste management	is the entire process	of generation, storage, collection, transportation, treatment and disposal of waste, and resource recovery.

Student-led Construction

The students will move into the student-led construction phase to construct their own definitions.

EMBEDDED CYCLE 2 — SURVEYS

Preparing the Context

How do we handle waste management in our school at present?

How could we find out the information we want about waste management? Elicit information about examples such as direct questioning, observation, video taping of the situation, survey.

What surveys have you seen or participated in?

Possible answers: phone surveys, shopping centre surveys, door surveys, census, surveys in other subject areas, television and radio ratings (television Logies, pop music rating).

What is a survey? What does it look like?

Possible answers: A series of questions or statements which require a true/false answer or sentence; multiple choice; graded responses 1–5.

Why do people do surveys?

Possible answers: To find certain kinds of information etc be used for different purposes, eg product use, magazines purchased, television programs watched. To identify target audiences for advertising, eg age range. To identify where changes need to be made.

Developing the Context

Teacher hands out a range of surveys with different formats, eg television viewing patterns and product use surveys and asks students to determine the following:

1. What is the purpose of the survey? (title and information)
2. Who is the target group?
3. What information is the person trying to find out?
4. How do you find out this information? (personal questions and instructions)
5. What did you notice about the format of the surveys? You are looking for a range of responses eg yes/no, rating-scale statements, boxes.

Modelling

Teacher puts model survey *How Much Water Do You Use?* on OHT and deconstructs stages of the survey with the students (Resource Sheets 2 and 3).

Teacher-led Construction

Jointly construct a survey to find out who is involved in waste management in the school. Resource Sheet 4 is an example.

Note

(1) The teacher may need to explain that the person responsible for the waste is not necessarily the one who disposes of the waste. For example, the Science head teacher is responsible for the disposal of chemical waste but the laboratory assistant actually organises the disposal.

(2) The teacher organises permission from other staff members to be interviewed. Organise class groups and provide a time frame for students.

One group is chosen to administer the survey to one or two members of the executive staff. Results of the survey are reported back to the class. Probably the results will consist of a list of persons responsible for waste management in the school.

Student-led Construction

Students, in groups, choose one name from the list and construct their own draft surveys while the teacher circulates and conferences with groups. Students also conference with other groups and revise as appropriate.

Some suggestions for questions to be included in the survey:

- What waste do you have?
- What do you do with it?
- What costs are incurred?
- How have your practices changed over the last few years?
- Why have your practices changed?
- Is there any government legislation that you need to abide by?
- What changes do you anticipate in the future?

Students administer surveys and keep results for later use.

DEVELOPING THE CONTEXT

Students visit a local vacant block of land to gather knowledge about the local environment.

Resource Sheets 5 and 6 are blank and completed proformas.

A model report, Resource Sheet 7, has been developed from the completed proforma. Teachers may prefer to prepare their own model on the basis of the actual vacant block visited.

MODELLING

In labelling the stages, we have chosen to use the generic theoretical labels in conjunction with a particular label that matches the purpose of the stage as seen in the classroom context. This approach is designed to assist students to become familiar with the terminology of the stages and to be able to apply their own terminology based on an understanding of the **purpose** of the stage.
Work with the students to establish the stages of the report (Resource Sheet 8), then undertake the language activities.

Language activities

1. Cut the model report into individual sentences. Mix them up. Ask students, in groups, to put sentences into correct order. Ensure students are able to justify the sequence they choose. (This will be based on knowledge of lexical cohesion, reference and connectives.)

2. Cut out stage names of the report and match with the cut-up sentences from the body of the report.

TEACHER-LED CONSTRUCTION

Teacher and students jointly construct a report on the basis of survey results from the group who surveyed canteen staff.

As in the model, the two issues of staging and choice of appropriate language features need to be considered. In order to focus clearly on each, it is suggested that

1. students are reminded of the relevant subject knowledge;
2. the generic stages of the model are used to help students contribute to the writing of Version 1 of the Teacher-led Construction, which will be appropriately staged;
3. the teacher reminds students of the language features examined in the model;
4. students and teacher rewrite Version 1 to produce a more appropriately worded Version 2.

Version 1 Correct staging	becomes	**Version 2** Correct staging and appropriate language
We went to talk to the lady in the canteen last Thursday. ... what do they do with their rubbish.		The canteen lady was visited last Thursday. ... how canteen rubbish is dealt with.

Resource Sheets 9 and 10 are fuller examples of the conversion from Version 1 to Version 2.

STUDENT-LED CONSTRUCTION

Using the information collected during the survey cycle, the students will write reports on waste management in the school.

RESOURCE SHEET 1A

1.	is a term	given to a substance which can be broken down by the natural process of decomposition, eg food and paper.
2. Clean fill	is material	
3. Composting		of recycling any organic materials (materials that are or once were alive).
4.	is a process	whereby dead material is broken down and nutrients are put back into the environment.
5. Industrial waste	is waste material	generated by industrial or manufacturing processes.
6. Organic waste		derived from animal or plant materials.
7.	is a process	involving the collection and processing of a waste product for use as a raw material in the manufacture of the same product or a similar one.
8. Waste management	is the entire process	

RESOURCE SHEET 1B

1. Biodegradable		given to a substance which can be broken down by the natural process of decomposition, eg food and paper.
2.	is material	consisting of clay, soil, crushed rock, rubble-like and inert mineral filling, up to a maximinum of 20mm in size.
3. Composting	is a method	
4. Decomposition	is a process	whereby dead material is broken down and nutrients are put back into the environment.
5. Industrial waste		generated by industrial or manufacturing processes.
6.	is waste	derived from animal or plant materials.
7. Recycling	is a process	
8. Waste management		of generation, storage, collection, transportation, treatment and disposal of waste, and resource recovery.

RESOURCE SHEET 1C

1. Biodegradable	is a term	
2. Clean fill		consisting of clay, soil, crushed rock, rubble like and inert mineral filling, up to a maximinum of 20mm in size.
3.	is a method	of recycling any organic materials (materials that are or once were alive).
4. Decomposition	is a process	
5.	is waste material	generated by industrial or manufacturing processes.
6. Organic waste	is waste	
7. Recycling		involving the collection and processing of a waste product for use as a raw material in the manufacture of the same product or a similar one.
8.	is the entire process	of generation, storage, collection, transportation, treatment and disposal of waste, and resource recovery.

RESOURCE SHEET 2

How much water do you use?

To find out how much water you and your family use, simply fill in the boxes with your family's particular details.

Add up all the totals to work out how much your family uses per day in litres. Divide this number by the amount of people in your home to see approximately what you use in litres per day. You could also multiply these values by 365 to calculate yearly approximations.

When filling in the boxes, simply leave out the points which don't apply to you, eg if you don't have a dishwasher then ignore item 4. It must be remembered that the values given are just typical values, the purpose being to give everybody a general idea of how much water they use. Some factors like seasonal variation are not considered for the sake of simplicity.

1. The toilet *(From 6–13L per flush, typically 11L)*

☐	x	☐	x	11L	=	L
No. of people in household		*Average No. of flushes per person per day*		*Volume of Water*		*Total*

2. The shower *(Can be between 40–245L for an 8 min shower, typical value is 140L)*

☐	x	☐	x	140 L	=	L
No. of people in household		*Average No. of showers per person per day*		*Volume of water*		*Total*

3. Dishwashing by hand *(The typical value is 18L per wash)*

☐	x	18L	=	L
No. of washes per day		*Volume per wash*		*Total*

4. The dishwasher *(Between 23–60L per wash, typically 35L)*

☐	x	35L	=	L
No. of washes per day		*Volume per wash*		*Total*

RESOURCE SHEET 2 (continued)

5. Clothes washing *(a) For a front loading automatic, average of 120L*
(b) For a top loading automatic, average of 180L
(c) For a twin tub, average of 40L

	÷	. 7	x	L	=	L
No. of loads per week		*Days in week*		*Volume of Water a, b or c*		*Total*

6. Handwashing, teeth cleaning, cooking and household cleaning
Typically about 18L per person per day

	x	18 L	=	L
No. of people		*Volume of water*		*Total*

7. Garden watering *(Up to 1500L per hour, typically 1000L)*

	÷	7	x	1000 L	=	L
No. of hours per week		*Days in week*		*Volume per hour*		*Total*

8. Topping up pool by hose *(Up to 1500L per hour, typically 1000L)*

	÷	. 7	x	1000 L	=	L
No. of hours spent topping up pool per week		*Days in week*		*Volume per hour*		*Total*

9. Car washing with hose *(Between 100–300L, a typical value is 200L per car wash)*

	x		÷	. 30	x	200L	=	
No. of cars		*No. of car washes per car per month*		*No. of days in month*		*Volume per wash*		*Total*

10. Dripping taps and leaking cisterns *(one drop per second is about 20L per day)*

	x	20L	=	L
No. of leaks/ drips		*Volume per day per tap*		*Total*

Thank you for participating. We hope you find the survey informative.

Produced by the Community Education & Information Unit, Water Board, Sydney

RESOURCE SHEET 3: STAGES

Title How much water do you use?

Purpose To find out how much water you and your family use simply fill in the boxes with your family's particular details.

Instructions Add up all the totals to work out how much your family uses per day in litres. Divide this number by the amount of people in your home to see approximately what you use in litres per day. You could also multiply these values by 365 to calculate yearly approximations.

When filling in the boxes, simply leave out the points which don't apply to you, eg. if you don't have a dishwasher then ignore Item 4. It must be remembered that the values given are just typical values, the purpose being to give everybody a general idea of much water they use. Some factors like seasonal variation are not considered for the sake of simplicity.

Questions

1. The toilet *(From 6-13L per flush, typically 11L)*

☐	x	☐	x	11L	=	L
No. of people in household		*Average No. of flushes per person per day*		*Volume of Water*		*Total*

2. The shower *(Can be between 40–245L for an 8 min shower, typical value is 140L)*

☐	x	☐	x	140 L	=	L
No. of people in household		*Average No. of showers per person per day*		*Volume of water*		*Total*

3. Dishwashing by hand *(The typical value is 18L per wash)*

☐	x	18L	=	L
No. of washes per day		*Volume per wash*		*Total*

4. The dishwasher *(Between 23–60L per wash, typically 35L)*

☐	x	35L	=	L
No. of washes per day		*Volume per wash*		*Total*

RESOURCE SHEET 3 (continued)

5. Clothes washing *(a) For a front loading automatic, average of 120L*
(b) For a top loading automatic, average of 180L
(c) For a twin tub, average of 40L

	÷	7	x	L	=	L
No. of loads per week		*Days in week*		*Volume of Water a, b or c*		*Total*

6. Handwashing, teeth cleaning, cooking and household cleaning
Typically about 18L per person per day

	x	18 L	=	L
No. of people		*Volume of water*		*Total*

7. Garden watering *(Up to 1500L per hour, typically 1000L)*

	÷	7	x	1000 L	=	L
No. of hours per week		*Days in week*		*Volume per hour*		*Total*

8. Topping up pool by hose *(Up to 1500L per hour, typically 1000L)*

	÷	7	x	1000 L	=	L
No. of hours spent topping up pool per week		*Days in week*		*Volume per hour*		*Total*

9. Car washing with hose *(Between 100–300L, a typical value is 200L per car wash)*

	x		÷	30	x	200L	=	
No. of cars		*No. of car washes per car per month*		*No. of days in month*		*Volume per wash*		*Total*

10. Dripping taps and leaking cisterns (one drop per second is about 20L per day)

	x	20L	=	L
No. of leaks/ drips		*Volume per day per tap*		*Total*

Closure Thank you for participating. We hope you find the survey informative.

RESOURCE SHEET 4

Model survey

Title **Key personnel in waste management in the school.**

Purpose To investigate who are the key personnel involved in waste management in the school.

Biographical Details
Name:
Position on staff:

Questions Please complete the following table:

Names of sections of the school which create waste.	Type of Waste	People responsible for disposal of waste
1.		
2.		
3.		
4.		

Questions (cont.) Please add any other information relevant to this survey.

RESOURCE SHEET 5

Proforma for a field excursion

ITEMS

RECYLE	TREAT and STORE	LANDFILL

RESOURCE SHEET 6

Sample completed proforma for field excursion

ITEMS

RECYCLE	TREAT and STORE	LANDFILL
bottles	paint	building rubble
aluminium cans	petrol	food — meat
PET	chemicals	plastic
old building timber	pesticides	dead cat
rubber tyres	medicines	plastic bags
car body	oil/cooking and engine	disposable nappies
paper	asbestos	condoms
cardboard boxes		insulation material
tree/lawn clippings		mattresses
food vegetables/fruit		polystyrene
furniture		syringes

RESOURCE SHEET 7

Field Excursion Report

The vacant allotment in Mary Street, Tempe was visited by the Year 9 Geography class on Wednesday 4th August.

The purpose of this field excursion was to observe, list and categorise different kinds of waste found on the allotment.

In the allotment visited it was observed that the grass is overgrown and rubbish of various kinds is scattered around.

Recyclable items found include bottles, rubber tyres and cardboard boxes.

Treatable materials found include paint in tins and containers of sump oil.

Items found to be used for landfill include disposable nappies, building rubble and an old mattress.

From the observations made, it is clear that more provisions for waste management need to be made by the local council to discourage residents from this kind of dumping

RESOURCE SHEET 8: STAGES

Field Excursion Report

General Statement	The vacant allotment in Mary Street, Tempe was visited by the Year 9 Geography class on Wednesday 4th August.
Observations:	The purpose of this field excursion was to observe, list and categorise different kinds of waste found on the allotment.
1. general	In the allotment visited it was observed that the grass is overgrown and rubbish of various kinds is scattered around.
2. recycle	Recyclable items found include bottles, rubber tyres and cardboard boxes.
3. treat and store	Treatable materials found include paint in tins and containers of sump oil.
4. landfill	Items found to be used for landfill include disposable nappies, building rubble and an old mattress.
Recommendations	From the observations made, it is clear that more provisions for waste management need to be made by the local council to discourage residents from this kind of dumping

RESOURCE SHEET 9

Teacher-led Construction Version 1

Survey Report

General Statement	We went to talk to the lady in the canteen last Thursday because we wanted to find out what they do with their rubbish.
Description general what	Well they said that they have a lot of rubbish. Things like empty jars, many layers of packaging, cardboard boxes, salad left overs and sauce bottles. They said that they just chuck it all in the dumpster which the school gets emptied twice a week by a private waste company. They don't know what happens to it after that.
where it goes	The ladies said that they have much more rubbish now than they used to and that they should recycle some of their rubbish.
	We think that they should recycle more.

RESOURCE SHEET 10

Teacher-led Construction Version 2

Survey Report

The canteen lady was visited last Thursday in order to find out how canteen rubbish is dealt with.

A lot of rubbish is generated by the canteen, empty jars and sauce bottles make up most of the rubbish. Rubbish is all disposed of by being thrown in the dumpster. This is emptied twice a week by a private waste company.

More rubbish is produced now than previously.

More recycling in the canteen is recommended.

OUTLINE

ACCESSING LEARNING

outline

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LANGUAGE AND LITERACY DEVELOPMENT IN KEY LEARNING AREAS

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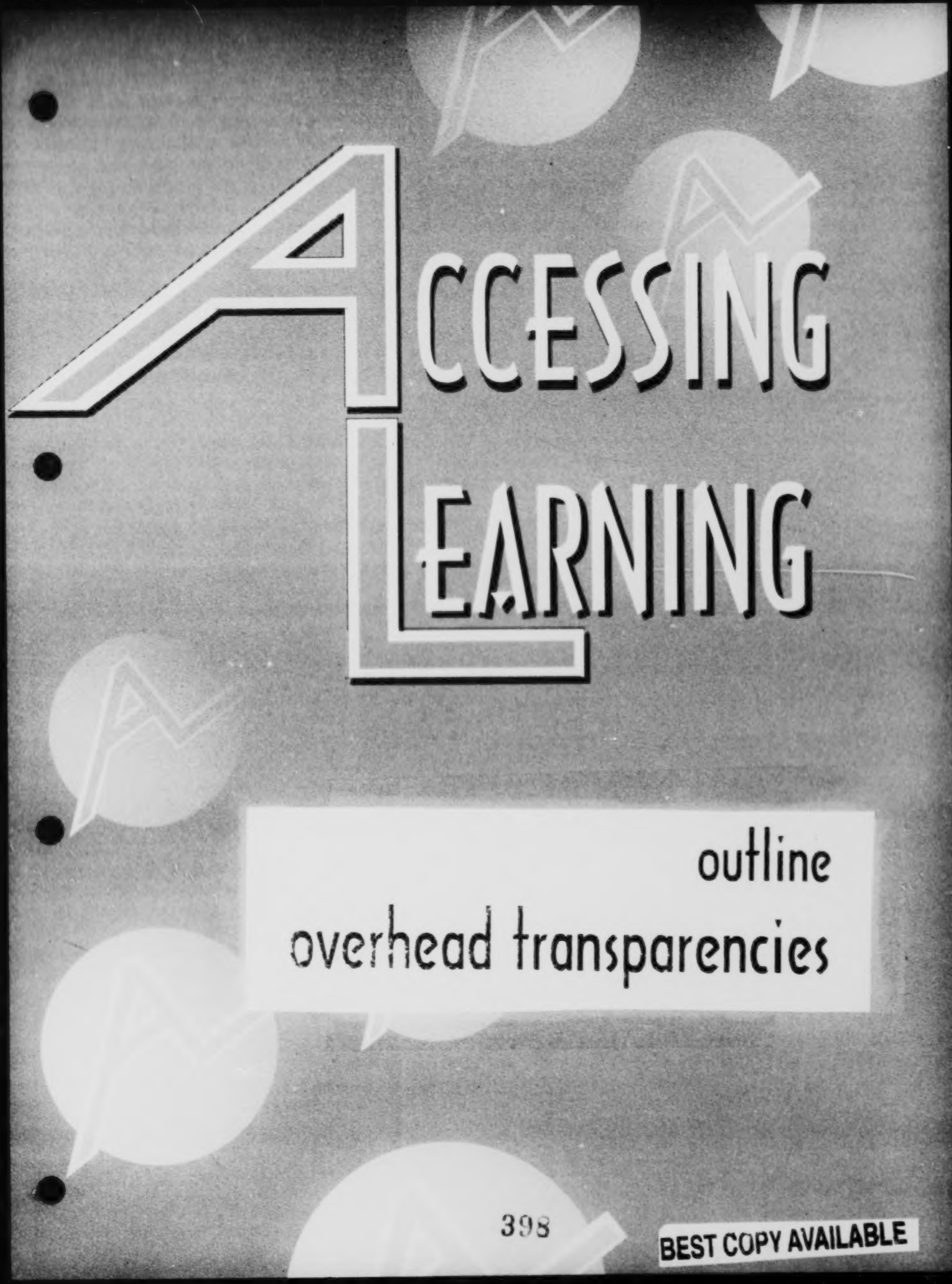

ACCESSING LEARNING

outline

overhead transparencies

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Accessing Learning has as its basis the importance of developing students' abilities to move from commonsense, everyday language to the kinds of technical, academic discourse required by the school curriculum.

The project identifies effective teaching/learning strategies that are appropriate to the curriculum areas, in particular, how to move from:

- ☐ the everyday to the technical;
- ☐ the particular to the general;
- ☐ the personal to the impersonal;
- ☐ the spoken-like to the written-like.

Accessing Learning examines the language demands of two Key Learning Areas:

- ☐ Human Society and its Environment
    - History
    - Geography
    - Commerce
- ☐ Technological and Applied Studies
    - Design and Technology

Macro-functions	History	Commerce	Geography	Design & Technology	Genres	Texts
Describing	√	√	√	√	reports - taxonomic - descriptive	definitions field work reports descriptions information reports
Recounting	√	√			narratives recount - biography - historical	biographies narratives myths
Instructing		√	√	√	procedures protocols	directions recipes manuals procedures
Explaining	√	√	√		explanation account	explanation essays accounts (how, why)
Challenging	√	√	√	√	arguments discussion	debates essays

Figure 1: The macro-functions, genres and texts of History, Commerce, Geography, Design and Technology

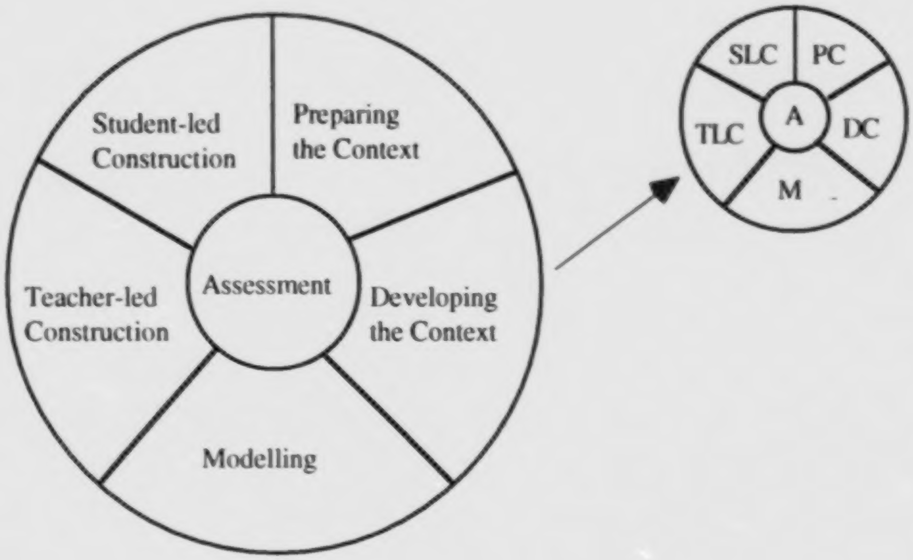
Student-led Construction
Preparing the Context
Assessment
Teacher-led Construction
Developing the Context
Modelling
SLC
PC
A
TLC
DC
M

Figure 2: The Teaching/Learning Cycle

COURSE DESCRIPTION

Work-shop	Module		Video	Classroom Units
1	Outline			
	The teaching/ learning cycle		Video 1. Parts 1 and 2	
2	Introduction to a functional view of language			
3	The language we use for describing Introduction to the Classroom Units	Reworking a student text	Video 2	History Pt 1 Geography Pt 1 Commerce Pt 1 Design and Technology Pt 1
4	The language we use for recounting	Jigsaw		History Pt 2 Commerce Pt 2
5	The language we use for instructing	Cloze		Geography Pt 2 Commerce Pt 3 Design and Technology Pt 2
6	The language we use for explaining	Dictogloss		History Pt 3 Geography Pt 3 Commerce Pt 4
7	The language we use for challenging	Critical literacy	Video 3	History Pt 4 Geography Pt 4 Commerce Pt 5 Design and Technology Pt 3
8	Conclusion			

THE SUGGESTED ORDER FOR COMPLETING ALL MODULES

Outline to *Accessing Learning*

1. Introduction

Approximate workshop running time: $^1/_2$ hour

Module One: The teaching/learning cycle

1. Introduction: Successful communication (View Video 1, Part 1: Introduction to *Accessing Learning*.)
2. The teaching/learning cycle (View Video 1, Part 2: History—Survey writing.)

Approximate workshop running time: 2 hours

Module Two

1. Introduction to a functional view of language

Approximate workshop running time: 2–3 hours

Module Three

1. The language we use for describing
2. Teaching/learning activity: Reworking a student text
3. Introduction to the classroom units
4. Classroom units—Describing (View Video 2, Design & Technology—Describing.)

Approximate workshop running time 2–3 hours

Module Four

1. The language we use for recounting
2. Teaching/learning activity: Jigsaw
3. Classroom units—Recounting

Approximate workshop running time 2–3 hours

Module Five

1. The language we use for instructing
2. Teaching/learning activity: Cloze
3. Classroom units—Instructing

Approximate workshop running time 2–3 hours

Module Six

1. The language we use for explaining
2. Teaching/learning activity: Dictogloss
3. Classroom units—Explaining

Approximate workshop running time 2–3 hours

Module Seven

1. The language we use for challenging
2. Teaching/learning activity: Critical literacy
3. Classroom units—Challenging
4. (View Video 3, Geography—Challenging)

Approximate workshop running time 2–3 hours

Module Eight

1. Conclusion to *Accessing Learning*

Approximate workshop running time 1–2 hours

7

SUGGESTED COURSE REQUIREMENTS

- attendance and participation in sessions
- learning journal
- workshop presentation of classroom sample lesson
- major classroom sample unit of work

ACCESSING LEARNING

module one

LANGUAGE AND LITERACY DEVELOPMENT IN KEY LEARNING AREAS

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ACCESSING LEARNING

module one
the teaching/learning cycle
overhead transparencies

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TASK 3

Read the teacher comments on student written work below. Read the student responses to these comments. In the light of the comments and reponses consider the following questions:

1. Are these teacher comments realistic?
2. Could the student responses be justified?
3. What issues are underlying the student reactions?
4. How do these issues relate to your own teaching experience?

Teacher/*Student*

comment - Much clearer, Mohummad.
response - *Much clearer than what? Is my handwriting improving?*

comment - 5/10 Your argument is not well constructed, Bruce.
response - *So what is good construction?*

comment - C plus, Cathy, your writing is too informal.
response - *But I don't know any other way to write!*

1-1

comment - 4/10 Answer the question.
response - It doesn't matter what the questions says, I just write everything I know anyway.

comment - This isn't good essay style.
response - I write this way in English and it's OK, so what's wrong with it for History?

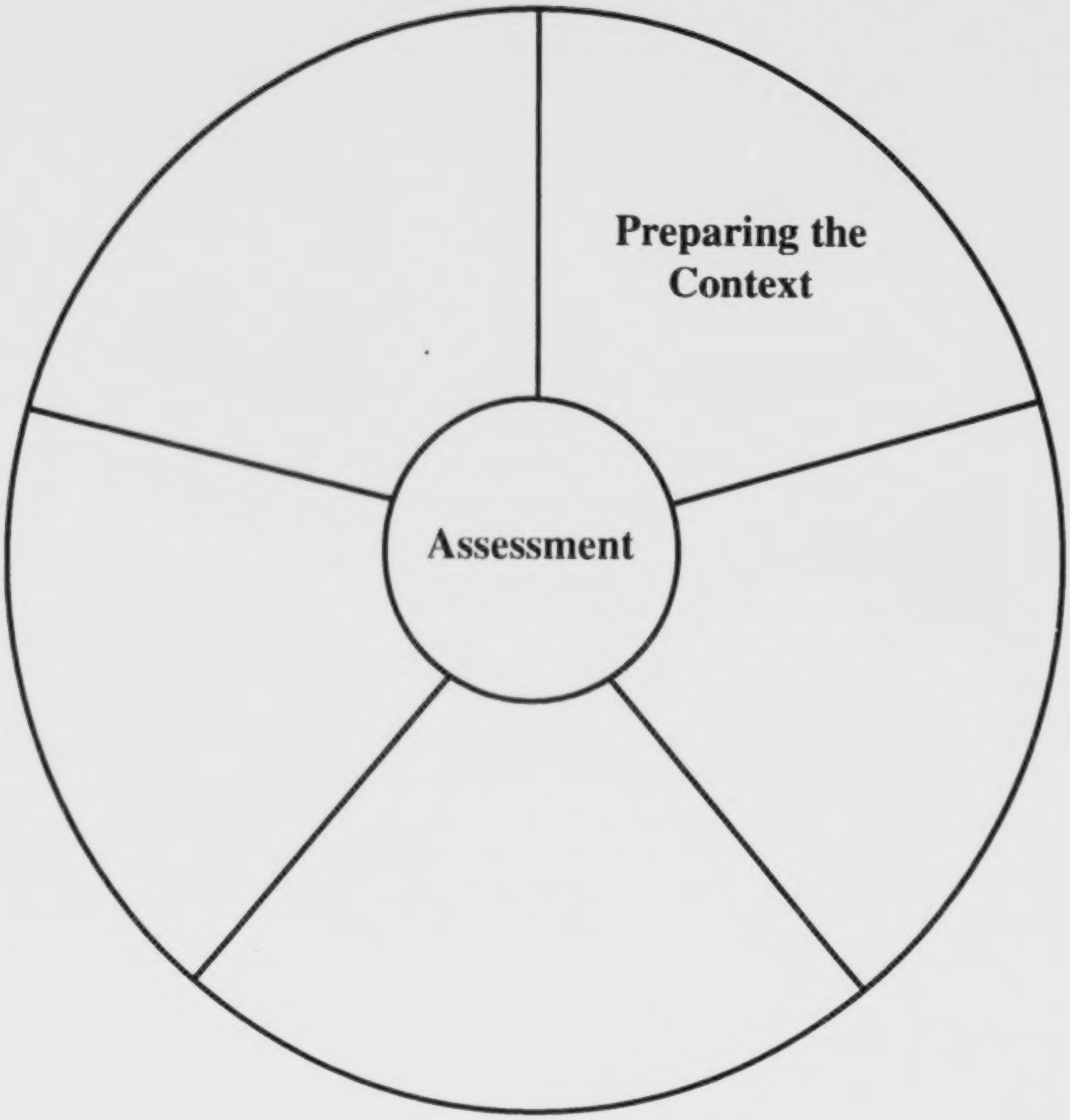
comment - 6/10 Try harder, Josephine.
response - How? You've never shown us.

comment - You have missed the point in some places, Luke.
response - Which places?

comment - B plus, good effort, Ming Lee
response - But why is it different to the one I did last time? I only got a C for that.

comment - Your ideas are a bit confusing. 6/10.
response - Yeah, well so was the question!

comment - 7/10 Be more careful, Kim.
response - Careful of what?



Preparing the Context

Assessment

3

TASK 4

Read the following sentence:

'Mary heard the ice-cream van coming down the street. She remembered her birthday and rushed into the house.'

What images come to mind?

What do you expect to happen next?

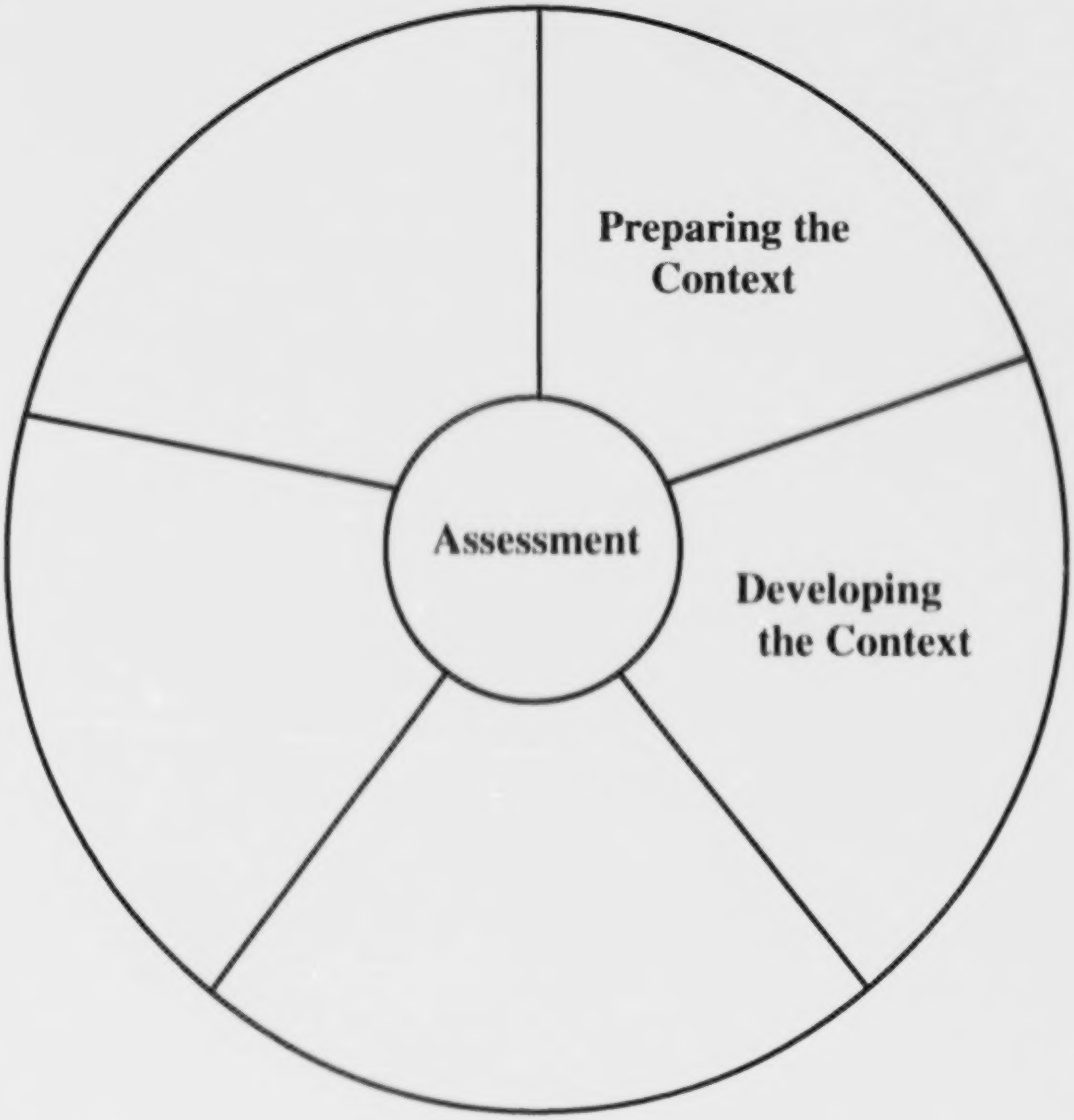
TASK 5

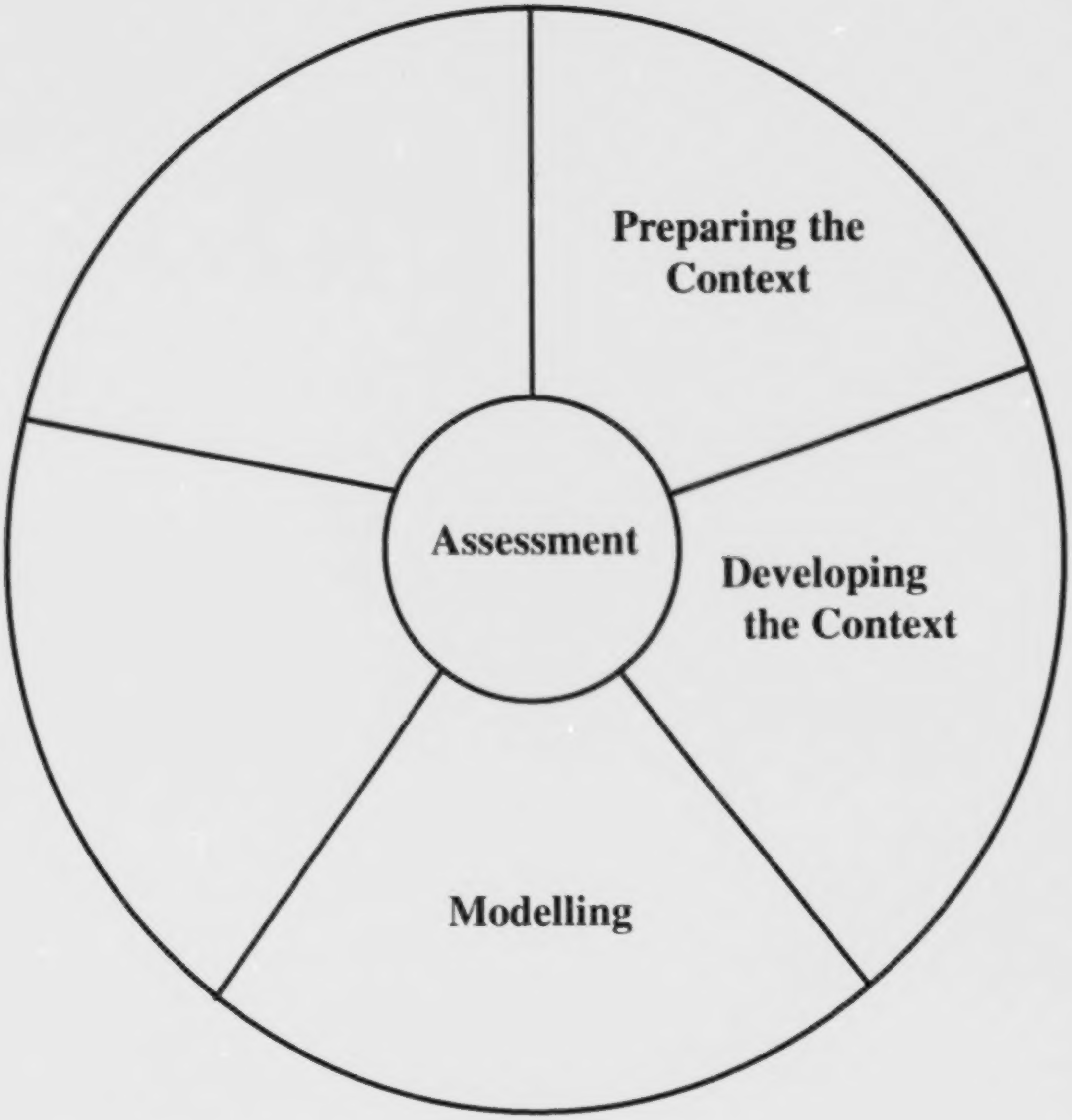
Consider the sentence below and think about what links you are making to what you already know or have experienced.

‘The policeman held up his hand and stopped the car.’

Question	**Answer**	
	Traffic Policeman Schema	**Superman Schema**
Did the policeman’s hand touch the car?	**No**	**Yes**
Were the car’s brakes applied?	**Yes**	**No**

5

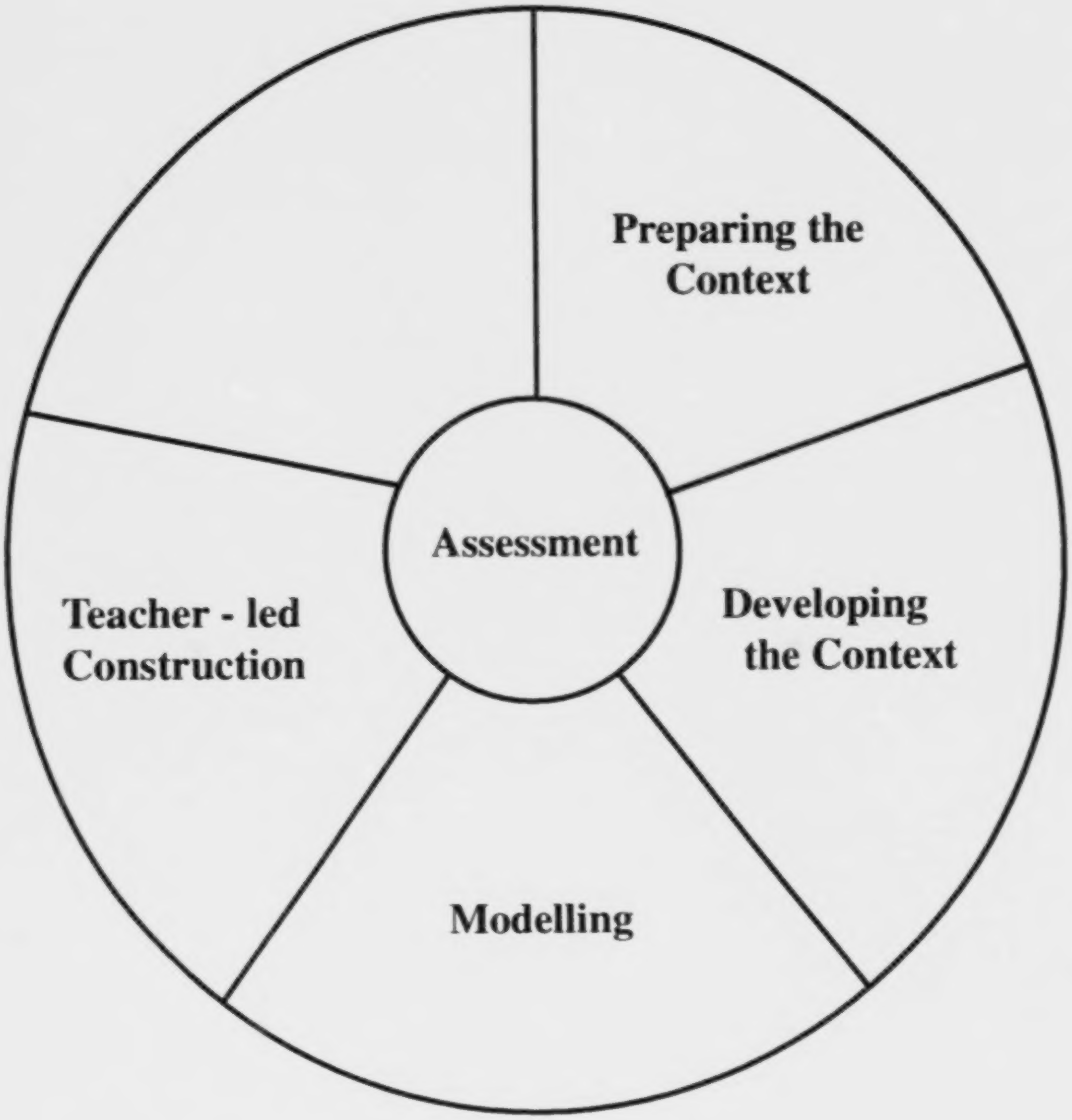

Preparing the Context
Assessment
Developing the Context


Preparing the Context
Assessment
Developing the Context
Modelling

7

TASK 6

1. Think about situations where you have known what you wanted to write about, but have not known how to start.
2. How did you approach/solve your problem?
3. What are the parallels with the classroom?



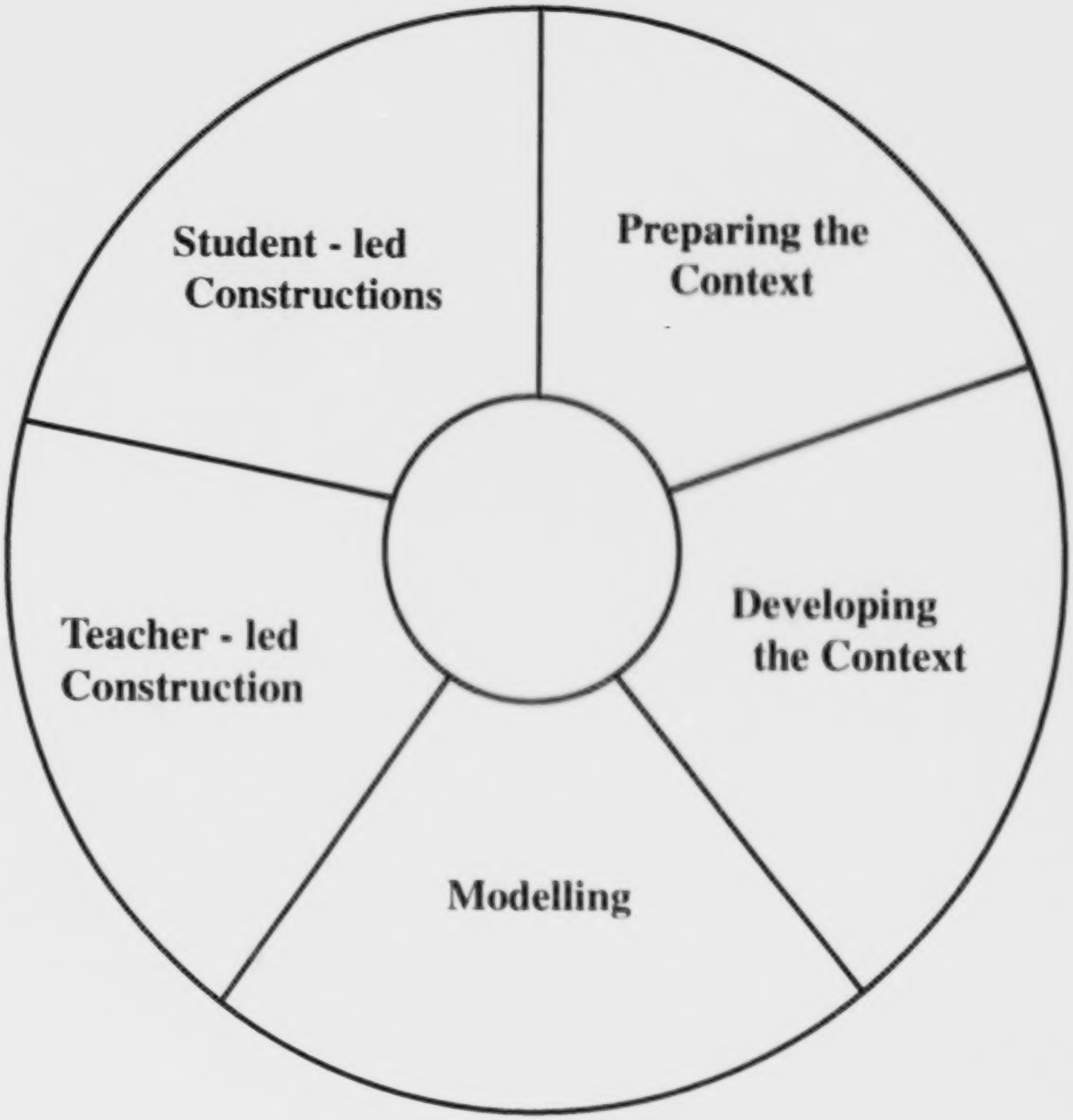
Preparing the Context

Developing the Context

Modelling

Teacher - led Construction

Assessment



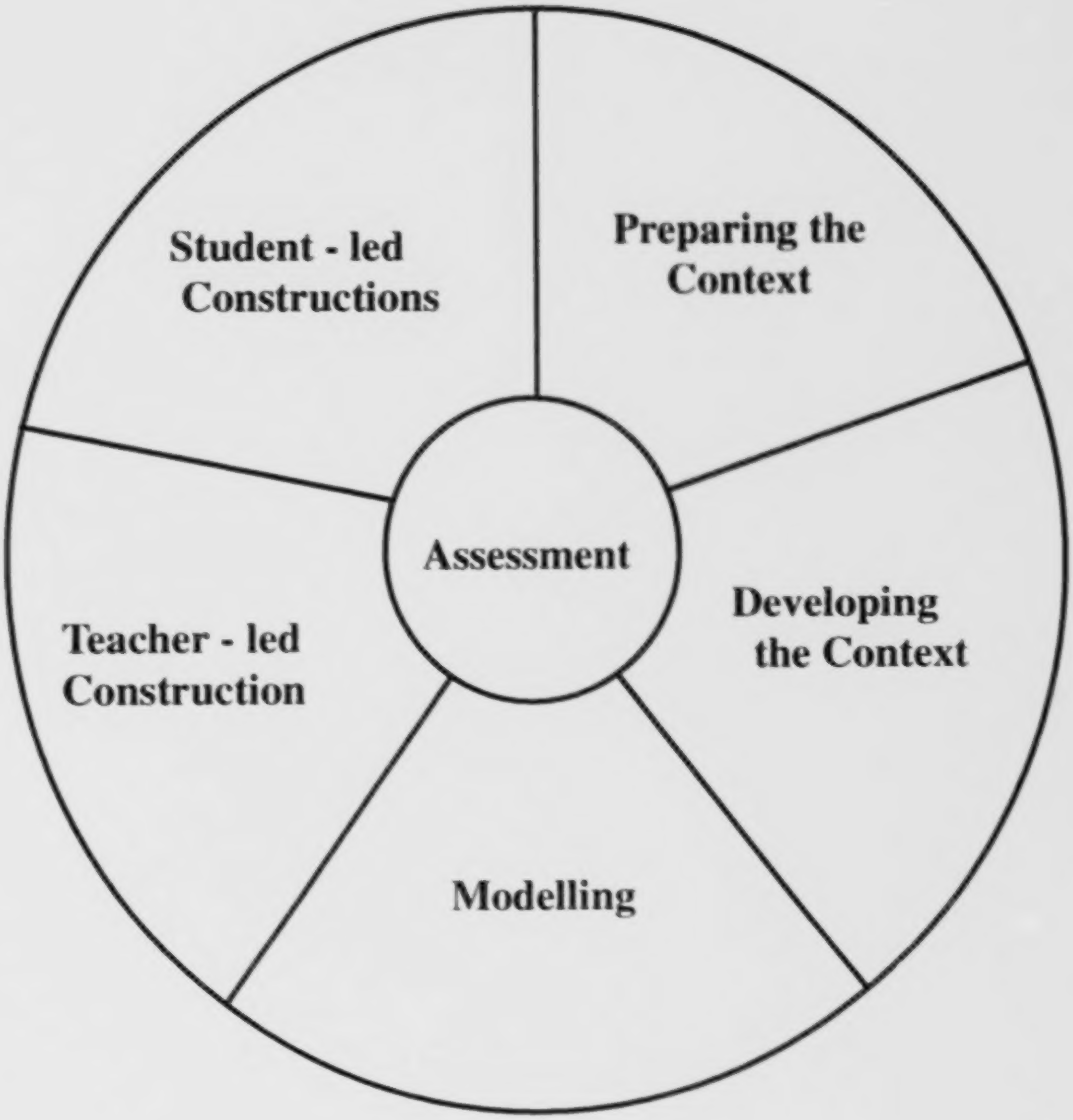
Preparing the Context

Developing the Context

Modelling

Teacher - led Construction

Student - led Constructions



Preparing the Context

Developing the Context

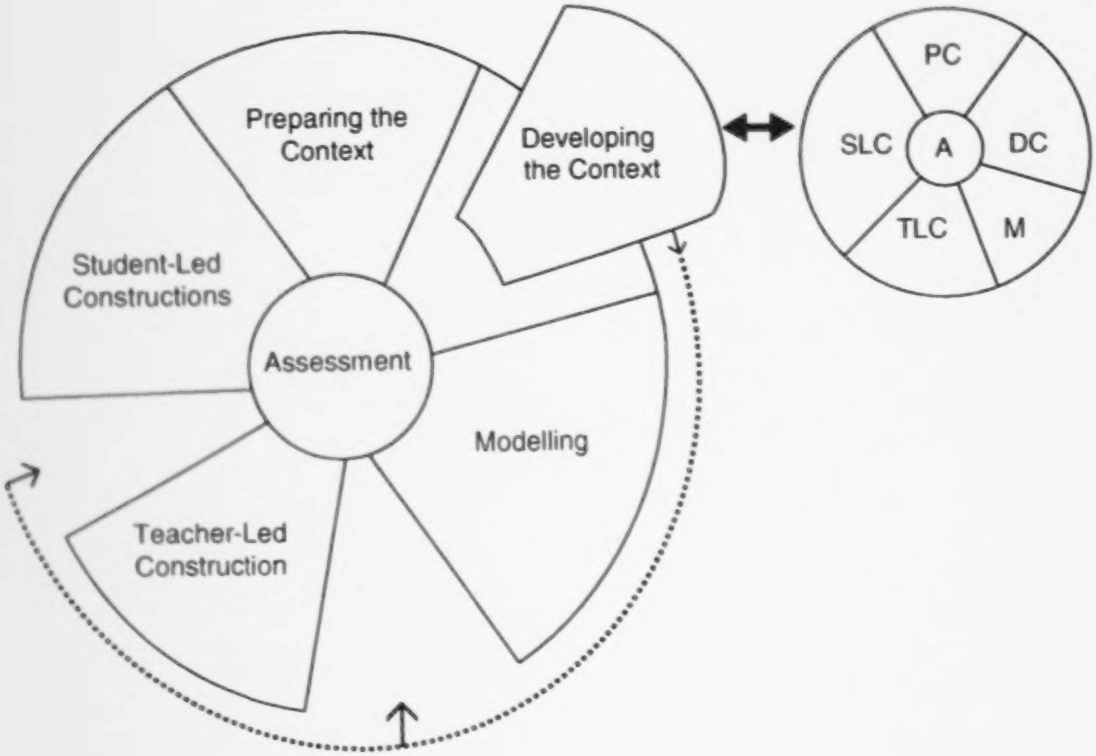
Modelling

Teacher - led Construction

Student - led Constructions

Assessment

11


Preparing the Context
Developing the Context
Student-Led Constructions
Assessment
Modelling
Teacher-Led Construction
PC
SLC
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DC
TLC
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420

TASK 7

Watch Video 1, Part 2: History Cycle.

Consider the following questions:

1. What activities does Cathy use to build up an understanding of the subject matter?
2. What activities does Cathy use to build up an understanding of the language features of a survey?
3. What does Cathy do to ensure the surveys are successful?

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TASK 8

Using the teaching/learning cycle and the Commerce cycle we looked at earlier, outline a cycle for Year 7 Design and Technology students on writing a description of gears. Refer students to their textbook on the history of machines, levers and pulleys for information. The descriptions will later form part of a report on machines.

TASK 8

Year 7 Design and Technology Cycle
Topic: Machines

PREPARING THE CONTEXT

- ☐ Introduce topic of machines.
- ☐ Brainstorm types of machines.

DEVELOPING THE CONTEXT

- ☐ Read the relevant section of the textbook chapter on the history of machines.
- ☐ Develop the technical vocabulary.
- ☐ Check that students can read graphical information and make connections to the text

MODEL

- ☐ Provide students with a description of levers based on the section of describing levers in their textbook
- ☐ Identify the features (deconstruct) of this description.

TEACHER-LED CONSTRUCTION

- ☐ Using overheads, teacher and students write a description of pulleys together.

STUDENT-LED CONSTRUCTION

- ☐ Students write their own descriptions of gears.

ACCESSING LEARNING

module one

the teaching/learning cycle

handouts

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TASK 3

Read the teacher comments on student written work below. Read the student responses to these comments. In the light of the comments and reponses consider the following questions:

1. Are these teacher comments realistic?
2. Could the student responses be justified?
3. What issues are underlying the student reactions?
4. How do these issues relate to your own teaching experience?

Teacher/Student

comment - Much clearer, Mohummad.
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response - *I write this way in English and it's OK, so what's wrong with it for History?*

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response - *But why is it different to the one I did last time I only got a C for that?*

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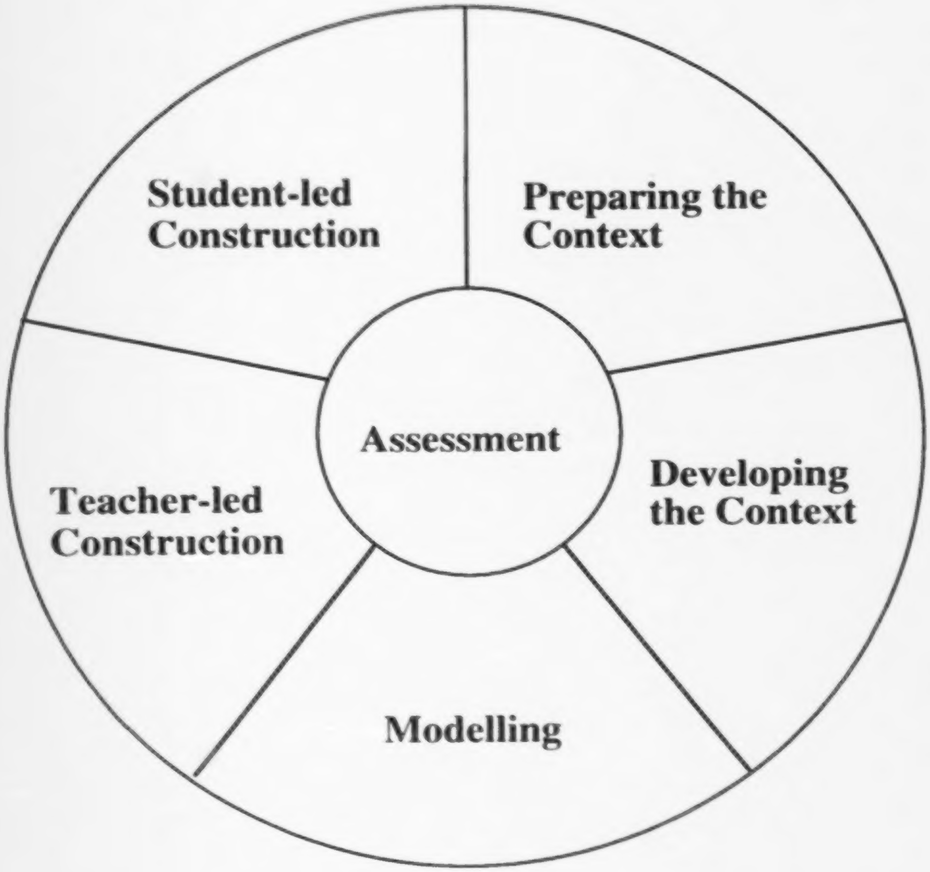

Student-led Construction
Preparing the Context
Assessment
Developing the Context
Teacher-led Construction
Modelling

4?7

PREPARING THE CONTEXT

In preparing the context, by asking students to think about what they already know about a topic the teacher can not only assess the gaps in the student's knowledge about the topic and provide the necessary information, but also encourage the students to make links between the new information and their existing knowledge. This includes the students' formal school knowledge about the topic plus any everyday knowledge they may bring to the situation.

This is usually done by questioning and discussion or a brainstorming activity. That is, in **Preparing the Context** the teacher is concerned with tapping into the students' schemata and then extending them.

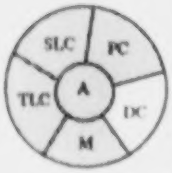
Take as an example of the Teaching/Learning Cycle in the classroom a Year 10 Commerce topic, the role of trade unions where the students will write a report on trade unions' at the end of the unit of work.

In preparing the context the teacher could ask the following questions to activate a schema and check background knowledge.

- ☐ what are trade unions?
- ☐ what do you know about trade unions?
- ☐ can you outline what a trade union does?
- ☐ can you name any trade unions?
- ☐ if you had to write a report on trade unions giving information about their structure and functions what kind of language would such a report include?

The student responses will indicate both what they already know and what needs to be taught in order for them to deal effectively with the **Developing the Context** and **Modelling** stages of the cycle. The teacher may need to introduce key vocabulary terms, and key concepts so that students can make sense of the work that follows.

DEVELOPING THE CONTEXT



In developing the context the teacher builds up of the topic through other related reading materials. This moves the students from an everyday understanding of the topic to a specialised understanding.

This part of the cycle will vary according to the amount of information students need. For example, students could research information from the library or watch a video as part of the information gathering.

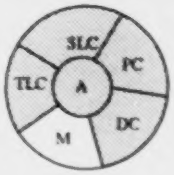
On-going consideration should be given to these questions:

❑ what information do students need to understand the topic and complete the final task?

❑ what type of activities will develop the context for the students?

In the Commerce example the teacher uses background readings on trade unions, shows a video on the history of trade unions and monitors student understanding of the background reading and the video.

MODELLING



In this segment the teacher provides a model/models of text that approximates what will be required of students.

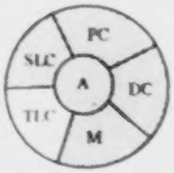
On-going consideration should be given to selecting activities to highlight:

❑ the overall structure of the model text;

❑ the important and/or characteristic language features of the model text.

In the Commerce example the teacher would provide a model of a report on the role of the trade union representative and would examine the model in detail with the students, checking for their understanding of the concept of stages, their ability to break the text into stages and their ability to recognise the characteristic language of a report.

TEACHER-LED CONSTRUCTION



In this segment the teacher and the students jointly construct a piece of writing similar to the model in the previous segment. The support of the teacher at this stage is critical in reinforcing linguistic features of the text by referring to the language activities and the model seen in the previous segment.

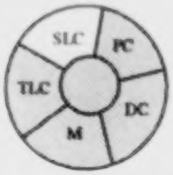
As this course progresses we will see how the teacher often chooses to do this in two stages. In what we call Version I, the teacher concentrates on ensuring that the text is constructed in an appropriate order.

This version is often written on every second line of an OHT, allowing the teacher and students to go over it a second time. In Version 2, the teacher will then concentrate on rewriting the text using the characteristic language features highlighted in the model.

On-going consideration should be given to how to ensure the students transfer into practice the knowledge gained from modelling work.

In the Commerce example the teacher and students jointly construct a report on the role of the trade union member, as the teacher continues to monitor student understanding.

STUDENT-LED CONSTRUCTION

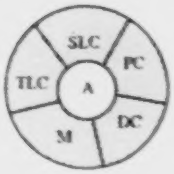


During this segment the students independently construct texts of their own similar to the model. It is important that the teacher asks students to write texts in the same genre and does not require them to write in a different way.

What often happens in classrooms is that teachers and students spend a considerable amount of time building up the field knowledge of the topic by engaging in a range of activities and looking at a variety of different texts. This culminates in an assignment or task which is a written text of some kind. The problem is that the final written task is sometimes not the type of text focused on during the preceding lessons. If a report has been modelled then a report would be the required text in the student-led construction. Of course the topic may not be approached from exactly the same point of view

While students are working on their texts they could be conferencing with other students or the teacher for guidance on both the content and language to be used in their piece of writing. In the Commerce example students independently construct a report on the role of the trade union movement in Australia and are formally assessed on the basis of the language features which have been articulated in the preceding lessons.

ASSESSMENT



Assessment lies in the centre of the model, the teacher monitoring the ongoing progress of students at all stages. The teacher determines student understanding of both the content and language demands of the unit of work and focuses on areas of need or passes quickly through areas with which students are already familiar.

In the Commerce example, the teacher informally assesses student understanding until the student-led construction, where formal assessment occurs, using the requirements established throughout the cycle as criteria.

Accessing Learning's primary aim is to present clearly the language conventions students need to master. Once you and your students have absorbed them, you can use them as reference points in your formal assessment of student work. The Teaching/Learning Cycle and Classroom Units show assessment as an integral part of teaching, but specific assessment activities are not provided.

EMBEDDED CYCLE

At times, the teacher may need to suspend movement around the cycle in order to teach a particular feature.

For example, a teacher may wish to teach about definitions or how to design a product text. This would require the teacher to move through all the stages of the teaching/learning cycle, but for a very specific purpose. When the task is completed, the teacher and students would re-enter the original cycle and continue. The embedded cycle is part of **Developing the Context**.

As well as allowing for separate skills development in the embedded cycle, the extended teaching/learning cycle below also allows for multiple opportunities to build up field knowledge.

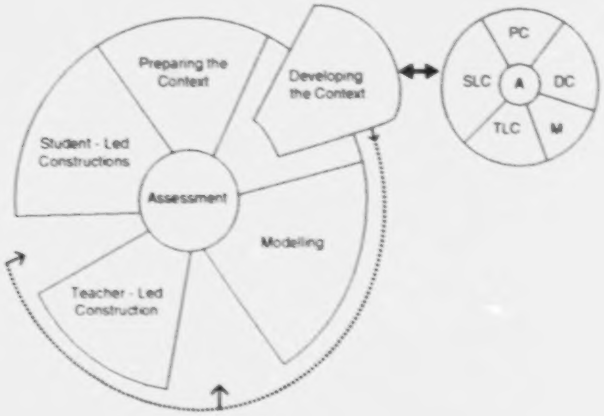


Figure 2: Extended and Embedded Cycle.

EXAMPLES OF THE TEACHING/LEARNING CYCLE

COMMERCE — THE ROLE OF TRADE UNIONS

Preparing the Context

- ☐ What are trade unions?
- ☐ What do you know about trade unions?
- ☐ Can you outline what a trade union does?
- ☐ Can you name any trade unions?
- ☐ If you had to write a report on trade unions giving information about their structure and functions what kind of language would such a report include?

Assessment

- Check understanding of knowledge of trade unions and key vocabulary.

Developing the Context

- ☐ Background reading on trade unions.
- ☐ Video on history of trade unions.

Assessment

- Check understanding of background reading and video.

Modelling

- ☐ Provide a model for a report on the role of the trade union representative.
- ☐ Examine the model in detail with the students.

Assessment

- Check understanding of the concept of stages and the ability to break text into stages.
- Check ability to recognise the characteristic language of a report and understanding of subject content.

Teacher-led Construction

❑ Teachers and students jointly construct a report on the role of trade union members.

Assessment

- Check ability to use appropriate staging and language features in report writing and knowledge of content.

Student-led Construction

❑ Students independently construct a report on the role of trade unions movement in Australia.

Assessment

- Formal assessment of a report in terms of content, staging and language features.

5

Year 7 Design and Technology Cycle. Topic: Machines

PREPARING THE CONTEXT

☐ Introduce the topic of machines.

☐ Brainstorm the types of machines.

DEVELOPING THE CONTEXT

☐ Read the section of the textbook chapter on the history of machines.

☐ Develop the technical vocabulary.

☐ Check that students can read graphical information and make connections to the text

MODEL

☐ Provide students with a description of levers based on the section describing levers in their textbook

☐ Identify the features of (deconstruct) this description.

TEACHER-LED CONSTRUCTION

☐ Using overheads teacher and students, write a description of pulleys together.

STUDENT-LED CONSTRUCTION

☐ Students write their own descriptions of gears.

ACCESSING LEARNING

module two

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LANGUAGE AND LITERACY DEVELOPMENT IN KEY LEARNING AREAS

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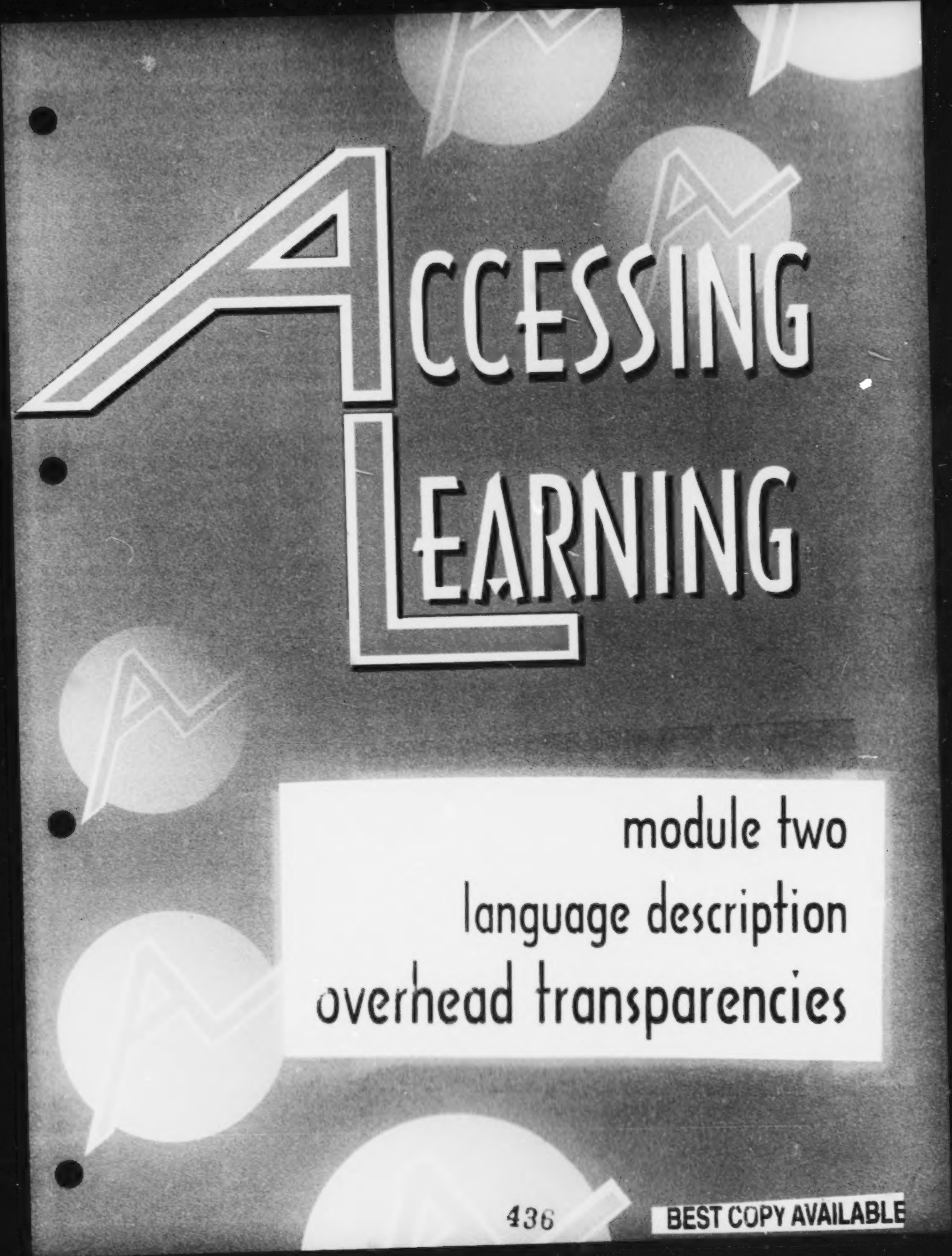

ACCESSING LEARNING

module two
language description
overhead transparencies

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TASK 1

Do you remember your English lessons in both primary and secondary school? Think for a minute about what aspects of language you learnt in English.

Write down what language features were dealt with.

TASK 2

Examine the following sentences. In which subject would you expect to find them? What do they have in common? In what ways are they different?

☐ The sun's rays contain UV light which is damaging to the skin.

☐ The sun is a glowing ball of hot gases. The most common elements in the sun are hydrogen, helium, calcium, sodium, magnesium and iron.

☐ The piercing sun relentlessly scorched his unprotected body.

☐ The Incas of Peru, like many other ancient peoples, worshipped the sun as a god and made sacrifices to it.

☐ The sun has affected the arts since ancient times. Several designs used in ancient art, such as the hooked cross, came from man's attempts to make pictures or carvings of the sun.

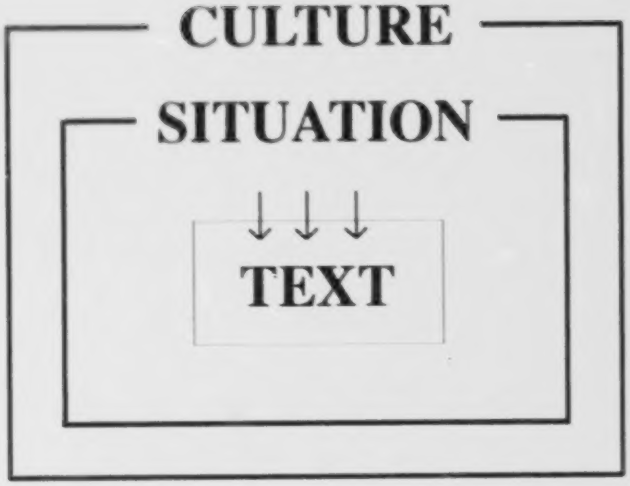
☐ Winds are made as the sun heats the air. Weather is made as warm air rises, cools, and drops its moisture onto the earth.

TASK 3

Sometimes when we communicate, even if we don't make any grammatical mistakes, what we say is still misunderstood or considered inappropriate.

Think of situations where you have known and used the rules of language (the grammar) correctly, but you haven't been a successful language user.

What do you think might account for this miscommunication?



CULTURE

SITUATION

↓ ↓ ↓

TEXT

Purpose: What is the purpose of the writing?

Why is it being written?

By whom is the writing intended to be read?

6

TASK 4

Purpose	Audience	Text-type	Appropriate or Inappropriate
To complain	government department	argument (eg letter of complaint)	
To entertain	child	narrative	
To give personal opinions	police officer	personal eye-witness account	

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TASK 6

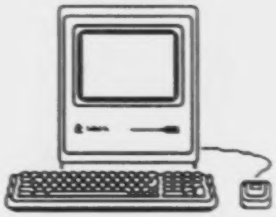
- Consider way(s) the computer writing activities below are similar. How do they differ?

- Working from your responses construct a plan/outline for each of the computer activities. For example:

  Plan for Activity 4 (a technical report)
  - General statement about computers
  - Description of uses

- Compare your plan with those of other groups (workshop participants only). Can you see any emerging patterns?

Computer writing activities



1. List the steps for using an Apple Mac.
2. Finish this story:
   "Once upon a time there was a little boy named Thomas. Thomas wanted very much to play 'Dragon Slayer' on the computer like his friends..."
3. You have just attended your first in-service on using a computer. Recount the events of the day.
4. Write a report on the uses of computer technology in the school curricula.
5. Explain why you bought your first computer.
6. 'Computers are deskilling our children'. Do you agree?

8

A functional labelling of the stages in the Task 6 texts would look like this:

Text 1: Procedure

- Statement of the goal
- Equipment needed
- Steps to be taken

Text 2: Narrative

- Orientation
- Complication
- Resolution
- (Coda)

Text 3: Recount

- Orientation
- Events

Text 4: Report

- General Statement about computers
- Description of uses

Text 5: Explanation

- Phenomenon
- Explanation factors

Text 6: Argument

- Thesis
- Arguments plus elaboration
- Summing up/Conclusion

Title	
General Statement	
Description of Participants	
Description of Computers	
Description of Computer use	

Using graphs

Report

Graphs are useful in geography. They can be used to show how something changes over time, for example, how much rain falls on average in each month. They can also show how one thing is linked or related to another thing. How long people take to get to school, for example, may be linked to how far away from school they live.

Graphs are drawn using facts and figures. These are called observations or data. The observations are then plotted on the graph by looking at the numbers along the sides. The graph can be drawn as a line or a set of bars. Sometimes, a scatter of points can be plotted.

Every graph must have:

Protocol

1. A title which says what the graph is about.
2. Full details of the figures along the sides.
3. Carefully plotted data.
4. A comment to say what the graph tells us.

TASK 8

A. You are driving home on a busy motorway on a rainy night. Suddenly there is a strange noise and steering is difficult — you know you have a flat tyre. Narrate in writing, for friends how you changed the tyre and went on your way.

B. After the night's events you have to write out the procedure for changing a tyre for people who don't feel secure about what to do.

In a workshop, this activity should be done in groups if possible (half the group do A and half the group do B; or pairs). Now compare texts by firstly reading out versions of A and B.

List the major differences between A and B in their:

(i) structure (text stages)
(ii) language features

TASK 9

Below we have listed a range of texts from the school context.

Which of these do you think are genres?

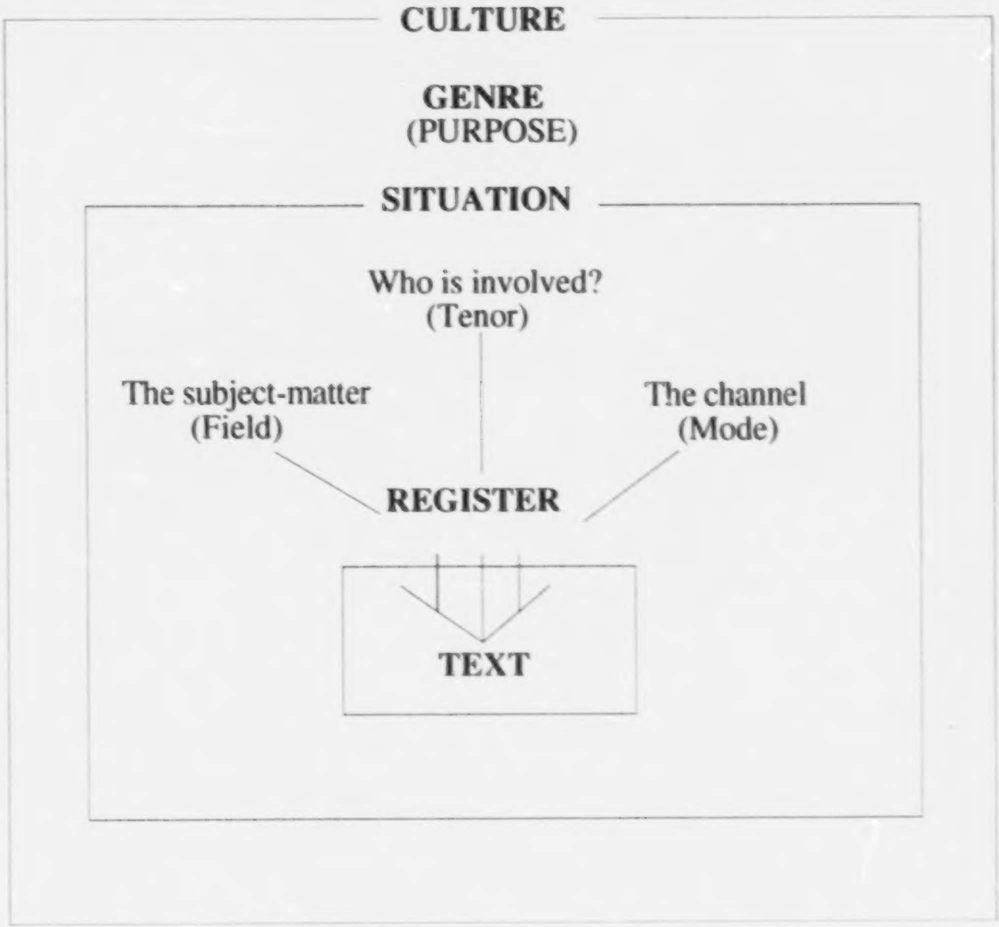
Why?

Reports
Letters
Definitions
Instructions
Notes
Letters to the Editor
Explanations
Argument Essays
Short answer questions

FIGURE 1: The macro-functions, genres and texts of History, Commerce, Geography, Design and Technology

Macro-functions	History	Commerce	Geography	Design & Technology	**Genres**	**Texts**
Describing	√	√	√	√	reports - taxonomic - descriptive	definitions field work reports descriptions information reports
Recounting	√	√			narratives recount - biography - historical	biographies narratives myths
Instructing		√	√	√	procedures protocols	directions recipes manuals procedures
Explaining	√	√	√		explanation account	explanation essays accounts (how, why)
Challenging	√	√	√	√	arguments discussion	debates essays

Describing	Reports	taxonomic
		descriptive
Recounting	Narratives	
	Recounts	recount (specific events)
		biography (people's lives)
		historical recount (generalised participants)
Instructing	Procedure	(ordered in time)
	Protocol	(general conditions)
Explaining	Explanation	(natural world)
	Account	(human world)
Challenging	Argument	(one sided)
	Discussion	(two sided)



CULTURE

GENRE
(PURPOSE)

SITUATION

Who is involved?
(Tenor)

The subject-matter
(Field)

The channel
(Mode)

REGISTER

TEXT

B. Derewianka, *Exploring How Texts Work*, PETA, 1990

TASK 10

Read at the text below then answer the following questions:

a) What is it about?
b) How do you know?
c) What is the problem with it?
d) How do you know?

FIBRE GROUPS

Some fibres used to make fabrics come from natural sources and others are man-made.

Originally, people wore skins and furs from animals they had hunted and killed for food. Later they discovered how to make threads to weave cloth from natural fibres produced by animals and plants. Living conditions in the caves were primitive and deaths were common. The most common fibres — cotton, linen, silk and wool — have been used for clothing for thousands of years.

Adapted from *Everyday Living: the basic skills*,
M.Bunney, A.Cone, J.Eagle, 1988.

TASK 11

Look at the continuation of the Fibre Groups text below:

a) What is the relationship between the writer and the readers?

b) How do you know?

c) What is the problem?

d) How do you know?

About 150 years ago scientists discovered how to make fibres from chemical substances. Today researchers keep on improving on this stuff and invent terrific new fibres and fabrics.

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TASK 12

The Fibre Groups text continues below:

a) Is this text more spoken or written-like?

b) How do you know?

c) What is the problem?

d) How do you know?

Man-made fibres are a useful substitute for natural fibres because unlike natural materials their availability does not depend on seasonal or climatic conditions. You know, man-made fibres have a natural base. You can add chemicals to them. Or can make them from just chemicals.

FIELD — *What is going on/what is the text about?*

- What will be the content?
- Will the topic/field be presented in general or particular terms or move from one to the other?
- Will the topic/field be presented in everyday or technical terms or move from one to the other?
- Will the focus be on things, people or events?
- Will the focus be on action or a state of the world?

TENOR — *Who is involved/What is the relationship?*

- What will the role relationship be between the interactants?
- Will it be personal or impersonal or move from one to the other? (social distance)
- Will it be tentative or certain or move from one to the other?
- Will mood be declarative (statements), interrogative (questions) or imperative (commands), or a mixture?
- Will it state attitudes/feeling etc.

MODE — *What is the medium of communication?*

- Will spoken or written mode predominate?
- Will it be more spoken like or written-like?
- Will the audience be immediate or distanced? (physical distance)
- Will the reference be mainly internal (related to the text) or external (related to the outside world)?

technical
words

Some **fibres** used to make fabrics come from natural sources and others are man-made.

Originally, people wore skins and furs from animals they had hunted and killed for food. Later they discovered how to make threads to weave cloth from natural fibres **produced** by animals and plants. **The most common fibres** — cotton, linen, silk and wool — have been used for clothing for thousands of years.

Other lesser known plant fibres woven into material include jute, coir and hemp; other animal fibres used for clothing are mohair, camel hair, and angora. Also, minerals and metallic substances — for example, asbestos, aluminium, stainless steel, gold and silver — are used in a limited way in the **manufacture** of garments.

About 150 years ago, scientists discovered how to make fibres from chemical substances. Today researchers continue to improve these and invent new fibres and fabrics.

Man-made fibres are a useful substitute for natural fibres because unlike natural materials their **availability** does not depend on seasonal or climatic conditions. Man-made fibres have either a natural base to which chemicals are added or they are made from chemicals only. **Those made from chemicals alone** are called *synthetics*.

noun groups
(words that
together act
as if they are
a single thing
in order to
pack several
ideas into one
place)

Abstract language
(nominalisation—
abstraction by
taking an action
and expressing
it as if it were
a thing).

Everyday Living: the basic skills.
M.Bunney, A.Cone, J.Eagle, 1988.

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THEME

The Theme of a sentence is defined as what comes first in the sentence. It is a significant feature as the Theme of the sentence is what is chosen to be the starting-point of the message by the writer; it focuses the reader 's attention on the message. By changing the Theme of a sentence the meaning of the sentence can be significantly changed. Consider these two sentences from spoken language:

> 'He came at half past eight.'
> 'Half past eight he came.'

Which speaker do you think is annoyed and how do you know?

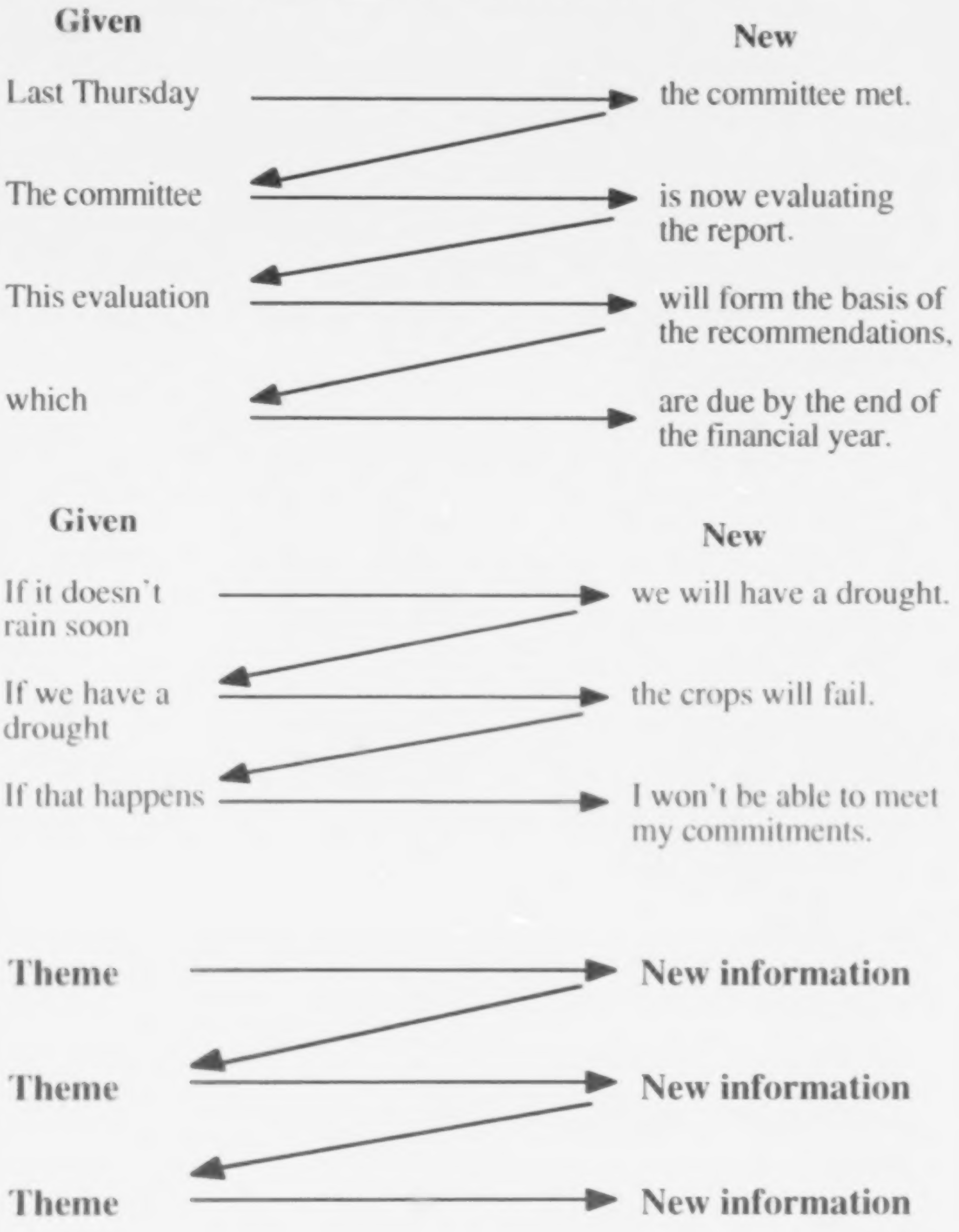
Typical Themes

I

we

the children

GIVEN AND NEW INFORMATION



Given	New
Last Thursday	the committee met.
The committee	is now evaluating the report.
This evaluation	will form the basis of the recommendations,
which	are due by the end of the financial year.

Given	New
If it doesn't rain soon	we will have a drought.
If we have a drought	the crops will fail.
If that happens	I won't be able to meet my commitments.

Theme → **New information**

Theme → **New information**

Theme → **New information**

ACTIVE AND PASSIVE

Passive The bunsen burner was lit.
Was lit is a passive voice construction.

Active We lit the bunsen burner.
Lit is an active voice construction.

'I think we need to consider a number of criteria.'
or
'We lit the bunsen burner.'

The above examples when thematised become:

'A number of criteria needs to be considered.'

'The bunsen burner was lit.'

THE NOUN GROUP

- **'the wheat** which the farmer allowed to ripen in the sun and become golden ....'
  becomes
  'the sun-ripened, golden wheat ...'

- **'the foam** which is white and is made from polystyrene has been expanded ...'
  becomes
  'the white, expanded polystyrene foam'

In these examples we see the noun followed by an adjectival clause being replaced by a noun group.

Inside the noun group

Noun groups expand on the meaning of the noun and make it more precise. They do so by using describing and/or classifying words that belong to the noun itself eg:

> Polyester is a **synthetic** fibre. *Synthetic* allows the writer to classify the fibre.
>
> Polyester is a **hardwearing** synthetic fibre. *Hardwearing* allows the writer to describe a feature of the fibre.

Hardwearing synthetic fibre is a noun group.

VERBS

The students conducted a survey

participant process participant

Action Verbs

These are the verbs which express the actions or happenings of the **'real'** world around us.

For example:

a) One of the Aboriginal men **went** to the top of the hill.

b) **Press** the T square stock firmly against the working edge of the drawing board.

One of the Aboriginal men **went** to the top of a hill and **stayed** there watching the white men **come** closer and closer. He told his men that the strange men **were coming**, and one by one they **took** their spears to the very top of the hill. Then two of the Aboriginals **rolled** some big rocks down the hill towards the white men. But they saw the rocks coming and **hid** themselves in a corner. The rocks **rolled** past them. The Aboriginal men thought that the strange men **were killed**, but they **were hiding** behind a big rock. Then the white men saw a black man and **fired** a gun. The Aboriginals **ran away** and **hid** themselves again.

Press the T square stock firmly against the working edge of the drawing board with your left hand. **Move** the drawing sheet so that its lower edge **rests** on the working edge of the T square blade. Both the drawing sheet and the T square **are** now **moved** so that the drawing sheet **can be located** close to the top left hand corner of the drawing board.

RELATIONAL VERBS

These are the processes which define or set up relationships between one thing and another. They express meanings about what things **are** eg:

to be, to consist of, to exist, to become, to be called

and about what things **have** eg:

to have, to own, to belong to

When water evaporates, it changes into an invisible gas ***called*** water vapour. When air ***contains*** a lot of water vapour, we say the humidity ***is*** high. At different temperatures, air ***can hold*** different amounts of water vapour. When the air ***cannot hold*** any more water at a particular temperature, we say that the air is saturated or that it ***has*** a relative humidity of 100 per cent. If the air ***is carrying*** only three-quarters of the water it is capable of carrying then it ***has*** a relative humidity of 75 per cent; if it ***is carrying*** half its capacity, then its relative humidity ***is*** 50 per cent, and so on. Relative humidity, then ***is*** a measure of the amount of water vapour ***being carried*** in air of a particular temperature compared with the total it ***could carry*** at that temperature.

NOMINALISATION ('THING-ISATION')

Here are some examples of nominalisation from verbs to nouns:

> The committee **is** now **evaluating** the report.
> This **evaluation** will ...

doing or process - a verb	**nominalised - a noun**
adjust	adjustment
assess	assessment
measure	measurement
require	requirement
allocate	allocation
observe	observation
calculate	calculation
produce	production
test	testing
write	writing
upgrade	upgrading
maintain	maintenance
avoid	avoidance

Note that nouns ending in **-tion**, -**ment**, -**ing**, -**ance** are often nominalised forms of verbs.

NOMINALISATION FROM ADJECTIVES

property or attribute (an adjective)	**nominalised (a noun)**
accurate	accuracy
inadequate	inadequacy
long	length
white	whiteness
straight	straightness

We have to **maintain** the building so that it **doesn't fall into disrepair.**

becomes

Building maintenance prevents **deterioration.**

MODALITY

It refers to the area of meaning that lies between **'yes'** and **'no'** and is concerned with the issues of probability and usuality.

	PROBABILITY		USUALITY
+▲	DEFINITELY	+▲	ALWAYS
	certainly probably maybe unlikely		usually sometimes occasionally rarely
–▼	DEFINITELY NOT	–▼	NEVER

Verbs can also be used to express this kind of precise meaning.

+▲ IT MUST BE

it will be
it may be
it might be
it could be

–▼ IT WON'T BE

Similar to modality is the resource which expresses obligation and inclination, which is known as **modulation**, eg I have to, he should, I'd like to, would you?

In addition, we can use this kind of resource to state as if it were a fact:

it is obvious that …

it stands to reason that …

the conclusion can hardly be avoided that …

all authorities on that subject are agreed that …

writers in this field argue that …

PROBABILITY/ OBLIGATION

certainly
surely
probably
perhaps
maybe
possibly
definitely
positively

USUALITY

always
often
usually
regularly
typically
occasionally
seldom
rarely
ever
never
once

PRESUMPTION

evidently
apparently
presumably
clearly
no doubt
obviously
of course

INCLINATION

gladly
willingly
readily

DEGREE

quite
almost
nearly
totally
entirely
utterly
completely
literally
absolutely
scarcely
hardly

TIME

yet
still
already
once
soon
just

INTENSITY

just
simply
ever
only
really
actually

COHESION

He liked neither eggs nor milk. They liked neither swimming nor running. She liked neither Peter nor Paul.

Upon waking that day Pedro neither shaved nor washed. He had neither the time nor the inclination to do so. This was because the events of the previous day had left Pedro tired.

TASK 13

What language strategies has the writer used to make the following text cohesive?

Before and After Buffalo

During the 1820s to 1840s, buffalo were brought to the 'top end' of Australia from Timor. They were used for fresh meat and as draft animals. Soon after, settlements were abandoned and buffalo spread through the Northern territory. They particularly liked wet areas, such as rivers and flood plains.

Learning to look through a Geographer's Eyes - Book 2
N.Gallagher, J.Oliver & I.Wilson,1988

VOCABULARY (LEXICAL CHAINS)

The topic hangs together in a cohesive way through the selection of vocabulary appropriate to the field.

During the 1820s to 1840s, buffalo were brought to the 'top end' of Australia from Timor. They were used for fresh meat and as draft animals. Soon after, settlements were abandoned and buffalo spread through the Northern territory. They particularly liked wet areas, such as rivers and flood plains.

This is an example of one lexical chain. Another lexical chain in the text is:

top end Australia Northern Territory

REFERENCE

During the 1820s to 1840s, buffalo were brought to the ‘top end’ of Australia from Timor. They were used for fresh meat and as draft animals. Soon after, settlements were abandoned and buffalo spread through the Northern Territory. They particularly liked wet areas, such as rivers and flood plains.

‘Peter’s comments about Brian’s book do not do him credit.’

In the example above him refers to Peter even though it is closer to Brian in the text.

CONNECTIVES

The sentences in the buffalo text hang together as well by using connecting words.

During the 1820s to 1840s, buffalo were brought to the 'top end' of Australia from Timor. They were used for fresh meat and as draft animals. Soon after, settlements were abandoned and buffalo spread through the Northern territory. They particularly liked wet areas, such as rivers and flood plains.

and — additive connective

soon after — temporal connective

such as — exemplifying connective

A Year 9 student produced and following sentence:

‘I stood on an ant **but** it died’.

The student should have written either:

‘I stood on an ant **and** it died’,

or

‘I stood on an ant **but** it **didn’t** die’.

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COMMON CONNECTIVE CATEGORIES

Temporal Connectives

Additive Connectives

Exemplifying Connectives

Comparison/Contrast Connectives

Cause/effect Connectives

ACCESSING LEARNING

module two
language description
handouts

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

TASK 2

Examine the following sentences. In which subject would you expect to find them? What do they have in common? In what ways are they different?

- ☐ The sun's rays contain UV light which is damaging to the skin.
- ☐ The sun is a glowing ball of hot gases. The most common elements in the sun are hydrogen, helium, calcium, sodium, magnesium and iron.
- ☐ The piercing sun relentlessly scorched his unprotected body.
- ☐ The Incas of Peru, like many other ancient peoples, worshipped the sun as a god and made sacrifices to it.
- ☐ The sun has affected the arts since ancient times. Several designs used in ancient art, such as the hooked cross, came from mans' attempts to make pictures or carvings of the sun.
- ☐ Winds are made as the sun heats the air. Weather is made as warm air rises, cools, and drops its moisture onto the earth.

2

TASK 5

This game highlights the need to match purpose and audience to the appropriate text-type.

Three groups of cards have been developed:

Group 1 - purpose cards (green)
Group 2 - audience cards (blue)
Group 3 - text-type cards (white)

(There are not equal numbers of cards in each group.)

Shuffle each group and then turn up one card from each. This will give you:

1 purpose card 1 audience card 1 text-type card

Consider whether the text-type revealed is appropriate to the intended purpose and audience. Repeat the process and consider again the appropriateness of each text-type with the intended purpose and audience.

Please note, there is no way to arrange all the cards so that they make a complete set.

Adapted from *Language in the National Curriculum*, UK, pp 155-6, 1992.

Note
The coordinator photocopies and cuts out each box for the participants to undertake this task.

Group 1 (green) **Purpose**	Group 2 (blue) **Audience**	Group 3 (white) **Text-type**
entertain	teacher	narrative
persuade	friend	description
explain	parent	directions
compare/ contrast	unknown person	explanation
inform	government official	argument essay
describe	doctor	anecdote
instruct	child	discussion essay
		report

TASK 6

- Consider way(s) the computer writing activities below are similar. How do they differ?

- Working from your responses construct a plan/outline for each of the computer activities. For example:

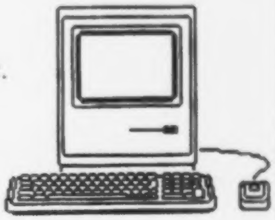
  Plan for Activity 4 (a technical report)

  – General statement about computers

  – Description of uses

- Compare your plan with those of other groups (workshop participants only). Can you see any emerging patterns?

Computer writing activities



1 List the steps for using an Apple Mac.

2 Finish this story:

'Once upon a time there was a little boy named Thomas. Thomas wanted very much to play 'Dragon Slayer' on the computer like his friends ...'

3 You have just attended your first in-service on using a computer. Recount the events of the day.

4 Write a technical report on the uses of computer technology in the school curricula.

5 Explain why you bought your first computer.

6 'Computers are deskilling our children.' Do you agree?

A functional labelling of the stages in the Task 6 texts would look like this:

Text 1: Procedure

- Statement of the goal
- Equipment needed
- Steps to be taken

Text 2: Narrative

- Orientation
- Complication
- Resolution
- (Coda)

Text 3: Recount

- Orientation
- Events

Text 4: Report

- General statement about computers
- Description of uses

Text 5: Explanation

- Phenomenon
- Explanation factors

Text 6: Argument

- Thesis
- Arguments plus elaboration
- Summing up/Conclusion

5

TASK 7

1. Look at the report below.

2. Re-order the sections of the report into the correct sequence.

3. Explain why you believe this order to be correct.

4. Identify the purpose for each section.

More than half the respondents used IBM compatible machines, the remainder mostly used Apple Macintosh and few individuals used Commodore. Most machines were purchased in the last three years.

All computers had a floppy disk, hard disk and printer but only 30% had a modem and 70% a colour monitor. All Apple Macintoshs had a mouse while only 45% of IBM used a mouse.

Eighty two percent of computer users have had repairs carried out on their machines to a value over $800. Most machines have had repairs at least once in the last two years.

The intended use of the computers coincided with their actual use in most cases. However, a small percentage (9%) of respondents used functions such as home accounting and education programs which had not been initially intended.

Finally, more than half of the respondents used the computer as expected; 3% slightly more than expected; 33% slightly less than expected and the final 4% of respondents used it much less than expected.

A survey was conducted to find out information about brands of computers people own; the functions they are required to perform and the amount of use each computer receives. Also information regarding the number of repairs carried out, cost of repairs and expected use was collected.

Computer Use Report

Five hundred responses to the survey were received. Of these 62% were from males. Sixty eight percent were in the 30–44 year age group and 12% in the 45 and over age group. Of the female respondents, 54% were in the 20–29 yrs, 42% in the 30–44 yrs, 3% in the 45+ over age range and only 1% in the 15–19 yrs age group.

Title **Computer Use Report**

General Statement

A survey was conducted to find out information about brands of computers people own; the functions they are required to perform and the amount of use each computer receives. Also information regarding the number of repairs carried out, cost of repairs and expected use was collected.

Description of Participants

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TASK 8

A. You are driving home on a busy motorway on a rainy night. Suddenly there is a strange noise and steering is difficult — you know you have a flat tyre. Narrate in writing, for friends, how you changed the tyre and went on your way.

B. After the night's events you have to write out the procedure for changing a tyre for people who don't feel secure about what to do.

In a workshop, this activity should be done in groups if possible (half the group do A and half the group do B) or pairs. Now compare texts by firstl reading out versions of A and B.

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9

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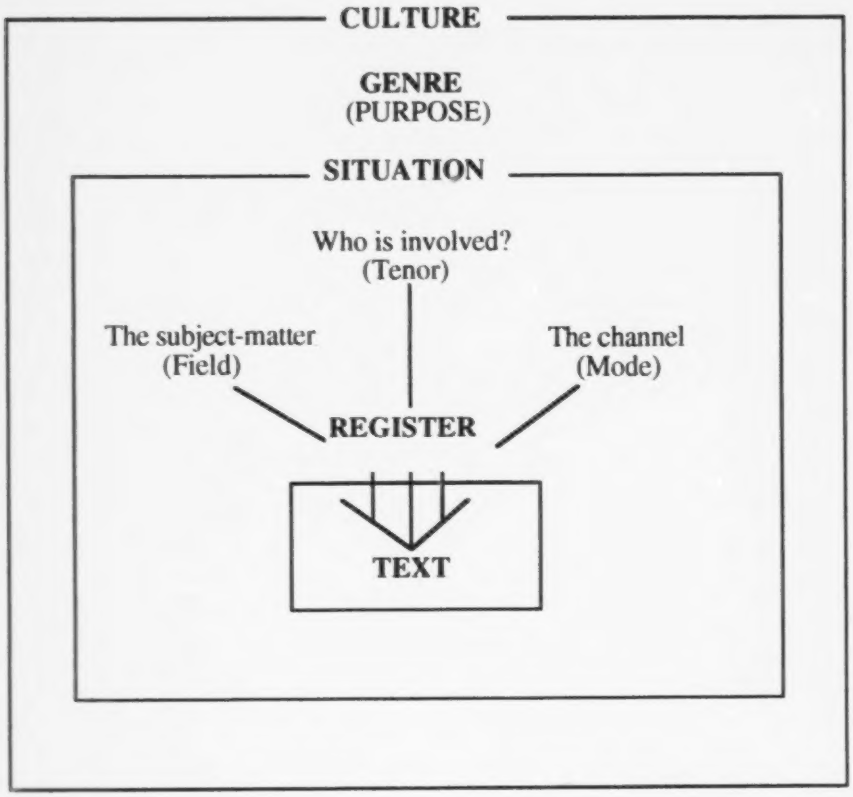
CULTURE
GENRE
(PURPOSE)
SITUATION
Who is involved?
(Tenor)
The subject-matter
(Field)
The channel
(Mode)
REGISTER
TEXT

Questions to consider for determining text language

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technical
words

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Everyday Living: the basic skills. M. Bunney, A. Cone, J. Eagle, 1988.

GLOSSARY OF LANGUAGE FEATURES (LEXICO-GRAMMAR)

THEME

The Theme of a sentence is defined as what comes first in the sentence. It is a significant feature of English as the Theme of the sentence is what is chosen to be the starting-point of the message by the writer; that is, it focuses the reader's attention on the message. By changing the Theme of a sentence the meaning of the sentence can be significantly changed. Consider these two sentences from spoken language:

> 'He came at half past eight.'
> 'Half past eight he came.'

Which speaker do you think is annoyed and how do you know?

The second speaker puts the time in Theme position in the sentence which gives the emphasis to the time. By doing this we can sense that this person is not happy about the late arrival.

The important points about Theme are:

- ☐ Every sentence begins with a Theme. You can identify the Theme of a sentence by seeing what comes first in the sentence.
- ☐ The Theme of a sentence is the starting point for what the writer wants to tell the reader.
- ☐ This use of the word *Theme* has evolved from the use of the word in the study of literature where it refers to the main idea no matter what the position. It has been deliberately borrowed because of the importance given to the words which are placed in the first position.
- ☐ By choosing the Theme of a sentence and what is new information in the sentence, the writer decides how to package information for the reader.

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Typical Themes

In report writing, the natural or typical things we make as the Theme of a sentence will tend to be things rather than people. In personal letters or stories the Themes tend to be people. If you look at personal letters which recount events you will read common Themes of sentences such as:

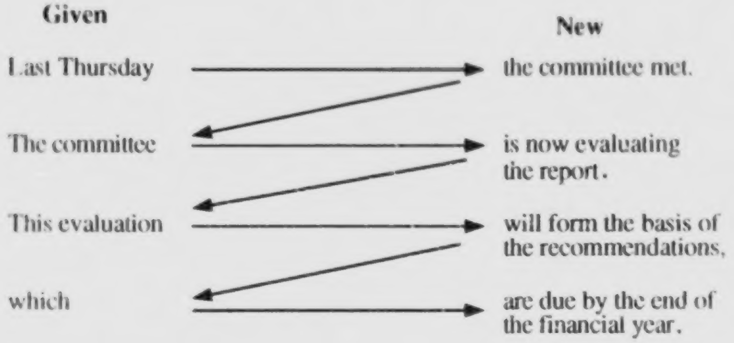
I
We
The children

This would not be appropriate to scientific or technical report writing where the focus is not so much on people but on technical things and processes. This is what is meant by saying that the style of report writing tends to be impersonal rather than personal.

GIVEN AND NEW INFORMATION STRUCTURE

The natural element or information to make the Theme of a sentence is the information already given to the reader in the text. The Theme in English sentences tends to be already known or familiar information.

Information which we place at the end of the sentence is typically new information for the reader. It is information which we have not yet told the reader about.


Given
New
Last Thursday
the committee met.
The committee
is now evaluating the report.
This evaluation
will form the basis of the recommendations,
which
are due by the end of the financial year.

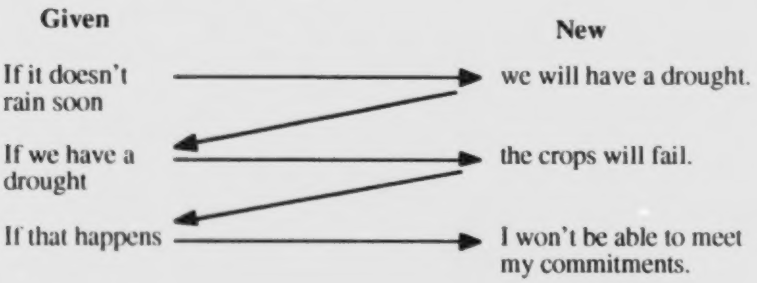
By looking at this pattern we can track the flow of information through these sentences.

The natural place for the new information is at the end of the sentence. The packaging of information in this sentence follows the normal pattern where given or known information is the

Theme of the sentence and new information is at the end of the sentence.

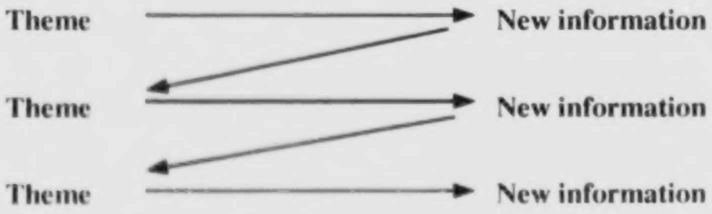
Once new information has been introduced it can subsequently be picked up to become the Theme of the following sentence — the starting point for the message of the next sentence.

See how this pattern occurs in the following three sentences:



Given	New
If it doesn't rain soon	we will have a drought.
If we have a drought	the crops will fail.
If that happens	I won't be able to meet my commitments.

Explaining the process involved in a particular phenomena using this pattern of given and new information we can see how it allows the writer to build up a cause and effect sequence of events, known as an implications sequence. So a common pattern in writing is for the new information of one sentence to become the Theme or starting-point for the next sentence.



Theme	**New information**
Theme	**New information**
Theme	**New information**

THE PASSIVE

The passive voice is the opposite of the active voice. Putting it very simply, if a sentence is active the active participant of the action comes first and the thing acted upon comes last. If the sentence was passive the thing the action is done to would come first, and the active participant would come last. For example:

Passive	the bunsen burner was lit **was lit** is a passive voice construction
Active	we lit the bunsen burner **lit** is an active voice construction

By moving from the active voice construction *'we lit the bunsen burner'* to the passive voice construction *'the bunsen burner was lit'*, we see the person(s) — *'we'* disappears. The focus shifts from being on the person doing the action, to what is being done — ie the bunsen burner being lit. In reports and explanations students often don't realise that it is inappropriate, and not relevant to mention their own opinions, or who did the investigations or the research. In these cases, students often choose the active voice which is inappropriate in that particular genre eg:

'I think we need to consider a number of criteria'.

or

'We lit the bunsen burner'.

Thematisation

Thematisation refers to the deliberate placing in the position of Theme (ie first in the sentence) a word or words which are the focus of the message. So the above examples would become eg:

'A number of criteria need to be considered'.

or

'The bunsen burner was lit'.

Conscious manipulation of Theme and the use of the passive are very powerful tools for teachers to highlight when working with students.

THE NOUN GROUP

A group of words which function as if they were a single noun is called a noun group. We can build up information around the noun and turn it into a lengthy structure which carries many elements of meaning tightly packed together. It is a resource which allows us to compress meanings into a single clause eg:

- **the wheat** which the farmer allowed to ripen in the sun and become golden …

  becomes

  the sun-ripened, golden wheat …

- **the foam** which is white and is made from polystyrene has been expanded …

  becomes

  the white, expanded, polystyrene foam

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In these examples we see the noun followed by an adjectival clause being replaced by a noun group.

Inside the noun group

Noun groups expand on the meaning of the noun and make it more precise. They do so by using describing and/or classifying words that belong to the noun itself eg:

> Polyester is a ***synthetic*** fibre. ***Synthetic*** allows the writer to classify the fibre.
>
> Polyester is a ***hardwearing*** synthetic fibre. ***Hardwearing*** allows the writer to describe a feature of the fibre.

The words ***hardwearing synthetic fibre*** form a noun group. You will notice that:

- the classifier comes immediately before the noun;
- in a sentence where both a describer and classifier are used the describer comes before the classifier eg;

  a ***large isometric drawing***.
  describer classifier noun

- the describer describes the noun itself rather than describing the classifier;
- describers and classifiers can appear independently of each other.

These resources are particularly important in technical writing where the intention is often to classify (taxonomise) or describe information. By using a noun group which contains a classifier and/or a describer a writer can be precise about a technical description.

When developing a taxonomy from a report you can point out to students that what we are trying to do is to look for the relationships between the things being studied. These relationships are often signalled in the classifier inside the noun group.

Mature writing uses this resource to pack ideas tightly together and create a text that is economical and convincing. However, students often find it difficult to both construct these noun groups and also to unpack their meaning when they encounter them in reading. It is important to support students as they experiment with using this language resource in a systematic way through the modelling phase of the cycle. They often miss some of the detailed information built into noun groups and can fail to understand the relationships between words which have been hidden by the choice of a noun group as opposed to a more lengthy spoken-like structure where those relationships are all spelt out.

VERBS

If we think of verbs not in terms of 'doing' words, but rather in terms of words which represent 'what's happening' in the world, then we broaden the traditional way we thought of the grammatical category 'verb' into the functional category of 'process'.

In other words, we could describe the world in terms of the processes which link the participants in the world with what's going on eg:

The students conducted a survey
participant process participant

If we think about the function these processes are fulfilling rather than just their form, it becomes possible to think of them as being grouped into a number of types. Educational genres each use the resources of specific types of verbs to achieve their purpose. The most central to the genres used in Human Society & Its Environment and Technological & Applied Studies are called **action verbs** and **relational verbs**.

Action Verbs

These are the verbs which express the actions or happenings of the 'real' world around us eg:

a) One of the Aboriginal men ***went*** to the top of the hill.

b) ***Press*** the T square stock firmly against the working edge of the drawing board.

As we can see from the two examples, one from Human Society & Its Environment and the other from Technological & Applied Studies, action verbs are a common way of building field-specific information. Action verbs are easily identifiable by students and being able to identify them as one of the language resources a writer uses to construct the field enables the students to track through the development of information in their reading and to stay 'on track' in their writing.

If we now look at the development of the extracts from which the first examples were drawn, we can see the use of action verbs in expressing how the events unfolded.

a) One of the Aboriginal men ***went*** to the top of a hill and ***stayed*** there watching the white men ***come*** closer and closer. He told his men that the strange men ***were coming***, and one by one they ***took*** their spears to the very top of the hill. Then two of the Aboriginals ***rolled*** some big rocks down the hill towards the white men. But they saw the rocks coming and ***hid*** themselves in a corner. The rocks ***rolled*** past them. The Aboriginal men thought that the strange men ***were killed***, but they ***were hiding*** behind a big rock. Then the white men saw a black man and ***fired a gun***. The Aboriginals ***ran away*** and ***hid*** themselves again.

b) ***Press*** the T square stock firmly against the working edge of the drawing board with your left hand. ***Move*** the drawing sheet so that its lower edge rests on the working edge of the T square blade. Both the drawing sheet and the T square ***are*** now ***moved*** so that the drawing sheet ***can be located*** close to the top left hand corner of the drawing board.

Other verbs which often look like action verbs are:

Mental: the Aboriginal men **thought** that …

Verbal: He **told** his men …

During this course, we will only focus on action and relational verbs.

Relational Verbs

These are the processes which define or set up relationships between one thing and another. They express meanings about what things **are** eg:

to be, to consist of, to exist, to become, to be called

and about what things **have** eg:

to have, to own, to belong to

Relational verbs are not about 'doing' an action as are action verbs, but rather about 'being', presenting a view of the world in which things are defined or relationships between things are expressed. This view of the world is critical to the genres of report, explanation and argument and provides the means through which knowledge is constructed in these genres.

Look at the extract below, taken from a report in which the relational verbs build up a view of the relationships which are central to the construction of knowledge about the field.

> When water evaporates, it changes into an invisible gas ***called*** water vapour. When air ***contains*** a lot of water vapour, we say the humidity ***is*** high. At different temperatures, air ***can hold*** different amounts of water vapour. When the air ***cannot hold*** any more water at a particular temperature, we say that the air is saturated or that it ***has*** a relative humidity of 100 per cent. If the air ***is carrying*** only three-quarters of the water it is capable of carrying then it ***has*** a relative humidity of 75 per cent; if it ***is carrying*** half its capacity, then its relative humidity ***is*** 50 per cent, and so on. Relative humidity, then ***is*** a measure of the amount of water vapour ***being carried*** in air of a particular temperature compared with the total it ***could carry*** at that temperature.

If teachers can identify the types of verbs central to the construction of a genre, they can assist students to recognise and use this language resource:

- in reading;
- to unpack the relationship between words and access the information in the text and in writing;
- to draw on this resource to help make their writing successful.

NOMINALISATION

Nominalisation is another technique for organising or packaging the information or content of our sentences. Often nominalisation is the only way we can get the information which we want to highlight into thematic position at the beginning of the sentence.

> The committee is now evaluating the report. This evaluation will …

Nominalisation could be called objectification or 'thing-isation'. In this process of nominalisation we take a meaning that would normally come out as a verb or adjective and dress it up as a noun. So what is really a process, a property or attribute in the real world is treated in language as it were a thing.

Here are some examples of nominalisation from verbs to nouns:

doing a process (a verb)	**nominalised (a noun)**
adjust	adjustment
assess	assessment
measure	measurement
require	requirement
allocate	allocation
observe	observation
calculate	calculation
produce	production
test	testing
write	writing
upgrade	upgrading
maintain	maintenance
avoid	avoidance

Note that nouns ending in **-tion**, **-ment**, **-ing**, **-ance** are often nominalised forms of verbs.

Nominalisation is a powerful language feature which often distinguishes spoken-like language from written-like language. We use it to make educational writing seem more abstract and technical. Nominalisation often requires the use of the passive voice, eg

We measured the distance at the end of the experiment

becomes

Measurement was conducted at the end of the experiment.

Here are some examples of nominalisation from adjectives:

property or attribute (an adjective)	**nominalised (a noun)**
accurate	accuracy
inadequate	inadequacy
long	length
white	whiteness
straight	straightness

Nominalisation is typical of technical and scientific writing, where meanings that would normally come as verbs are packaged as nouns.

Look at the following examples of nominalisations from reports. Remember a nominalisation is the process of packaging a **doing** or **happening** as a thing. The process can be reversed and nominalisations can be unpacked turning the nouns back into verbs and adjectives.

We have to maintain the building so that it doesn't fall into disrepair.

becomes

Building maintenance prevents deterioration.

The above example highlights how nominalisation provides the writer with a powerful tool for controlling the required impersonal and objective tone of technical and scientific writing.

MODALITY

There are a number of ways in which we can soften the words we choose in speaking and writing. One such tool is modality.

It refers to the area of meaning that lies between 'yes' and 'no' and is concerned with the issues of probability and usuality.

	PROBABILITY		**USUALITY**
+ ↑	DEFINITELY	+ ↑	ALWAYS
	certainly		usually
	probably		sometimes
	maybe		occasionally
	unlikely		rarely
– ↓	DEFINITELY NOT	– ↓	NEVER

Verbs can also be used to express this kind of precise meaning.

+ ↑ IT MUST BE

it will be
it may be
it might be
it could be

– ↓ IT WON'T BE

When modality is the used to express obligation and inclination it is known as **modulation**, eg 'I have to', 'he should', 'I'd like to', 'would you?'

In addition, we can use this kind of resource to make it appear that an opinion is being stated as if it were a fact:

it is obvious that …
it stands to reason that …
the conclusion can hardly be avoided that …
all authorities on that subject are agreed that …
writers in this field argue that …

Students who have a command of this language resource are able to express their meaning more accurately and argue their case more convincingly. In reading, students can recognise how the writer has used this resource to modify their ideas or to attempt to lead the reader to interpret the text the way the writer intends.

The following words can be used to provide the speaker/writer with a range of options to make their meaning more precise, rather than make an absolute statement.

PROBABILITY/ OBLIGATION

certainly
surely
probably
perhaps
maybe
possibly
definitely
positively

USUALITY

always
often
usually
regularly
typically
occasionally
seldom
rarely
ever
never
once

PRESUMPTION

evidently
apparently
presumably
clearly
no doubt
obviously
of course

INCLINATION

gladly
willingly
readily

DEGREE

quite
almost
nearly
totally
entirely
utterly
completely
literally
absolutely
scarcely
hardly

TIME

yet
still
already
once
soon
just

INTENSITY

just
simply
ever
only
really
actually

COHESION

Cohesion is the grammatical means by which a text hangs together. It is what makes the difference between a text that forms a unified whole and one that is just a collection of unrelated words.

Consider the following piece of writing:

> He liked neither eggs nor milk. They liked neither swimming nor running. She liked neither Peter nor Paul.

These sentences have something in common — similarity of structure — but they are not a text. The three sentences together do not form a unit of meaning. There is nothing there that would prevent us rearranging the order of the sentences.

The following sentences have a similar structure:

> Upon waking that day Pedro neither shaved nor washed. He had neither the time nor the inclination to do so. This was because the events of the previous day had left Pedro tired.

Here, however, if we were to alter the order we would certainly destroy the meaning, for the meaning is created by the cohesive ties that link the sentences into a unified text.

Texts can hang together in a number of ways. For instance through the vocabulary (lexis), through reference and connectives.

Learner Task 13

Workshop Task 13

What language strategies has the writer used to make the following text cohesive?

Before and after buffalo

During the 1820s to 1840s, buffalo were brought to the 'top end' of Australia from Timor. They were used for fresh meat and as draft animals. Soon after, settlements were abandoned and buffalo spread through the Northern Territory. They particularly liked wet areas, such as rivers and flood plains.

Learning to look through a Geographer's Eyes
Book 2, Gallagher, Oliver & Wilson
Nelson, 1988

Commentary

The above passage hangs together as a unified whole by the use of the three systems: vocabulary (lexical chains), reference, and connectives.

Vocabulary (lexical chains)

The topic hangs together in a cohesive way through the selection of vocabulary appropriate to the field.

During the 1820s to 1840s, buffalo were brought to the 'top end' of Australian from Timor. They were used for fresh meat and as draft animals. Soon after, settlements were abandoned and buffalo spread through the Northern territory. They particularly liked wet areas, such as rivers and flood plains.

This is an example of one lexical chain. Another lexical chain in the text is:

top end Australia Northern Territory

Reference

Another device used to link sentences together is reference. Substituting 'they' for the vocabulary items relating to buffalos allows the text to flow without have to repeat the subject *buffalos*.

> During the 1820s to 1840s, buffalo were brought to the 'top end' of Australia from Timor. They were used for fresh meat and as draft animals. Soon after, settlements were abandoned and buffalo spread through the Northern territory. They particularly liked wet areas, such as rivers and flood plains.

Students not only have difficulty using reference to make their writing more coherent, but often make incorrect assumptions about what is being referred to. Reference can be further complicated by the reference word being used some distance from the word to which it refers. Student can often become confused eg:

> 'Peter's comments about Brian's book do not do him credit.'

In the example above him refers to Peter even though it is closer to Brian in the text.

The complexity of the referencing system in English means that teachers cannot assume that students can understand who or what is being referred to. Practice in unpacking reference and using it as a writing tool may be necessary.

Connectives

The sentences in the buffalo text hang together as well by using connecting words.

> During the 1820s to 1840s, buffalo were brought to the 'top end' of Australian from Timor. They were used for fresh meat and as draft animals. Soon after, settlements were abandoned and buffalo spread through the Northern territory. They particularly liked wet areas, such as rivers and flood plains.

and — additive connective
soon after — temporal connective
such as — exemplifying connective

It is important for students to have a rich enough repertoire of connectives to allow them to express the relationship between ideas accurately. Equally, they must be able to understand the relationships being expressed in a text eg:

> A Year 9 student produced the sentence: 'I stood on an ant but it died'. The student should have written either: 'I stood on an ant and it died' or 'I stood on an ant but it didn't die'.

This student failed to understand that but is a connective that should be used to contrast two ideas. The use of and would have been the correct connective, in the sense of its ability to convey the idea of consequence.

COMMON CONNECTIVES

Below is a list of common connectives which may be useful.

Temporal Connectives

first (second, third, etc)
when
now
at this point
meanwhile
after a while
previously
finally
next
lastly
at this moment
next time
in the end
before that
then
here
until then
soon
at once
afterwards

Additive Connectives

also
furthermore
moreover
but
in addition
as well
and
not only
while
without
besides
additionally
whereas

Exemplifying Connectives

- for example
- as exemplified by
- such as
- consequently
- for instance
- including
- accordingly
- for one thing
- these include
- through

Comparison/Contrast Connectives

- however
- in spite of this
- whereas
- on the other hand
- in other respects
- nevertheless
- differs from
- on the contrary
- rather
- elsewhere
- either/or
- instead
- on the other hand
- also
- in that respect
- alternatively
- neither/nor

Cause/effect Connectives

- so
- consequently
- as a consequence of
- yet
- despite this
- all the same
- accordingly
- then
- as a result
- hence
- an effect of
- otherwise
- still
- however
- nevertheless
- so as
- as a result of
- an outcome of
- therefore
- because
- caused by
- in that case
- though
- even though
- under the circumstances

ACCESSING LEARNING

module three

LANGUAGE AND LITERACY DEVELOPMENT IN KEY LEARNING AREAS

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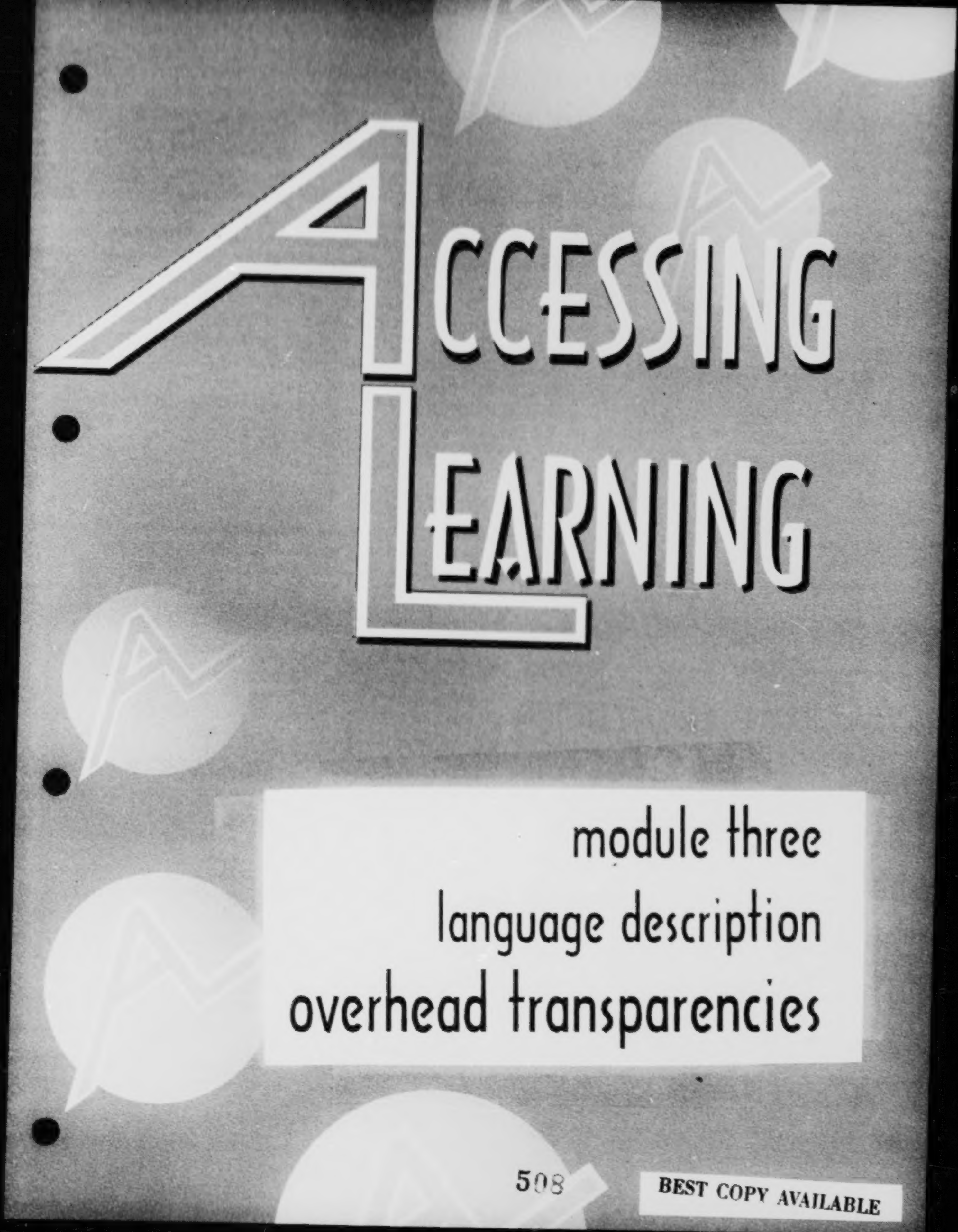

ACCESSING LEARNING

module three
language description
overhead transparencies

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TASK 1

The six report texts are taken from secondary textbooks. Read the one(s) relevant to your subjects and then consider these questions:

What is the purpose of this report?

Who would read it and why?

2

STAGES OF A REPORT

The generic structure or staging of taxonomic reports can be represented as:

General Statement or
Technical Classification ^ Classification

The generic structure or staging of descriptive reports can be represented as:

General Statement ^ Descriptions

The symbol ^ indicates **'is followed by'**

Reports classify and describe.

TASK 3

Read the questions below in relation to the text you have chosen.

1. How does the first sentence or heading of each stage in the report tell what the stage is going to be about?

2. Does the report give us **general** information about people/things/events or does it discuss **particular** people/things/events (participants)?

3. Are there expressions of attitudes or feelings? If so note down a few examples.

4. Are there technical terms? How are they defined and/or classified?

4

REPORTS: LANGUAGE FEATURES

Some of the most important language features of reports are outlined below and related to the questions above.

1. The first sentence or heading of each stage of a report usually indicates what the stage is about. In a sense, each description is like a mini-report, the first sentence of which often provides a general statement or classification.

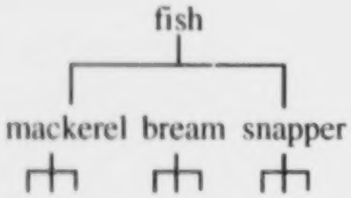
2. Generalised (things/participants). Participants are the people or things which are being described eg *Romans, men, women, fabrics, cotton, lathe, headstock, drawings, draftsmen, ecosystems, water, air* etc .

3. Non-attitudinal vocabulary. There are no examples of personal feelings or attitudes in taxonomic reports and they rarely occur in descriptive reports, eg:

- *Wool is the fleece of the sheep* rather than 'wool is the beautiful fleece of the soft, white sheep'.

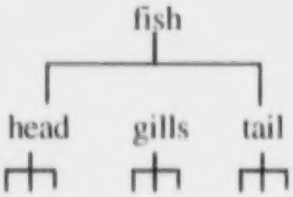
- The lathe is divided into four main parts, rather than 'the lathe, which I hate to use, is divided into four main parts'.

4. Technical/descriptive vocabulary. The language is organised in the text to enable classification and/or definition (see Module Two Glossary of Language Features: The Noun Group). In particular, note the position just before the noun in a noun group, where we find the classifier, that is, the word that tells us the type and which may be used to draw a taxonomy.


fish

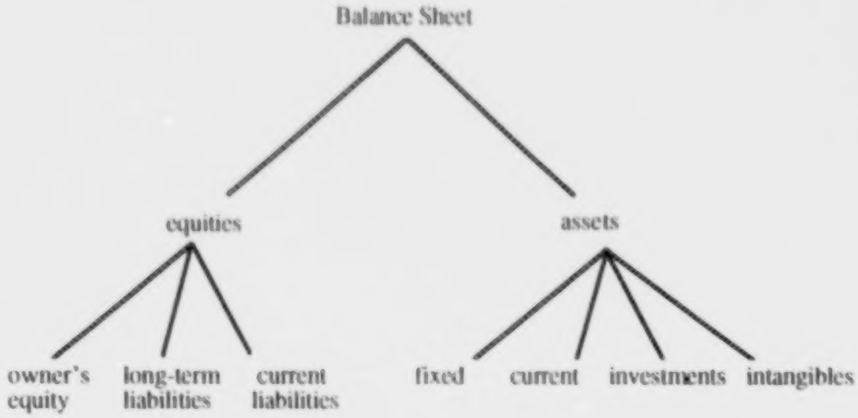
mackerel bream snapper

Class/subclass taxonomy of types of fish

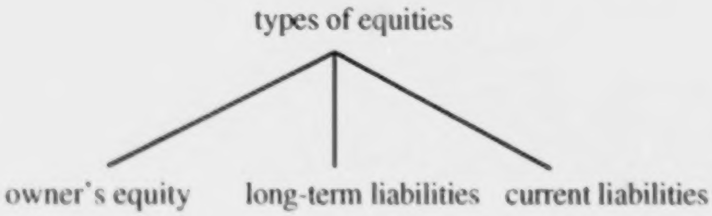

fish

head gills tail

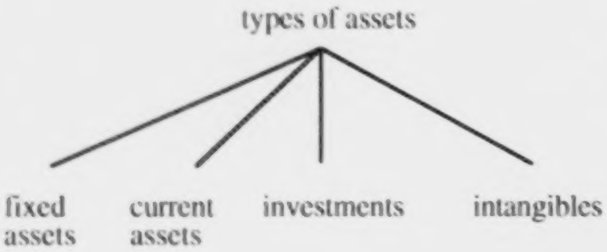
Part/whole taxonomy of parts of fish


Balance Sheet
equities
assets
owner's equity
long-term liabilities
current liabilities
fixed
current
investments
intangibles

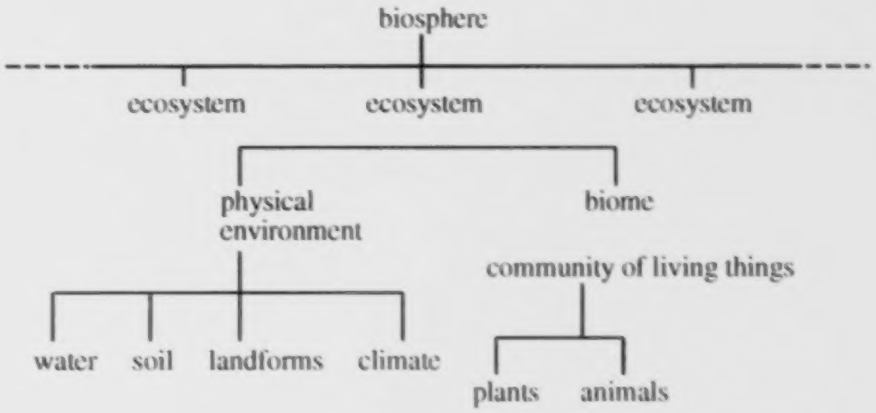
1. **Taxonomy of equities and assets (class/subclass)**


types of equities
owner's equity
long-term liabilities
current liabilities

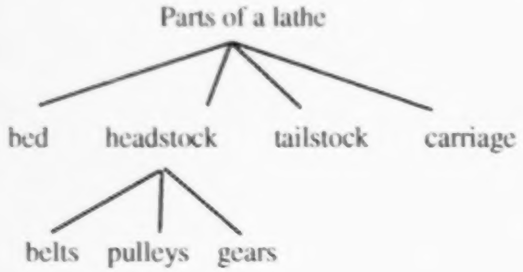
2. **Taxonomy of types of equities (class/subclass)**


types of assets
fixed assets
current assets
investments
intangibles

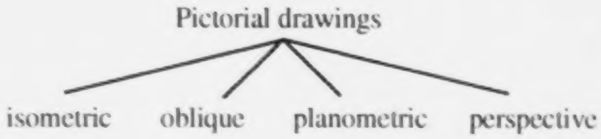
3. **Taxonomy of types of assets (class/subclass)**


biosphere
ecosystem
ecosystem
ecosystem
physical environment
biome
community of living things
water
soil
landforms
climate
plants
animals

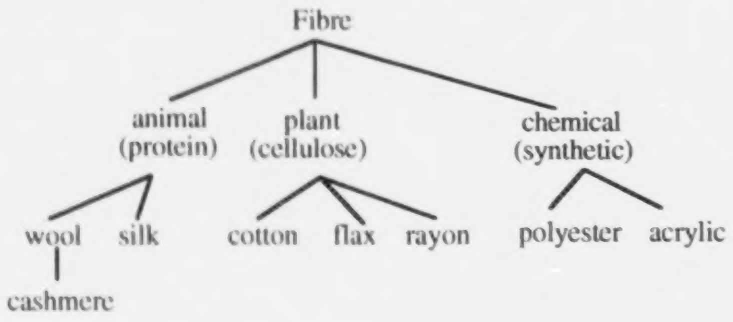
Taxonomy of ecosystem (part/whole)


Parts of a lathe
bed
headstock
tailstock
carriage
belts
pulleys
gears

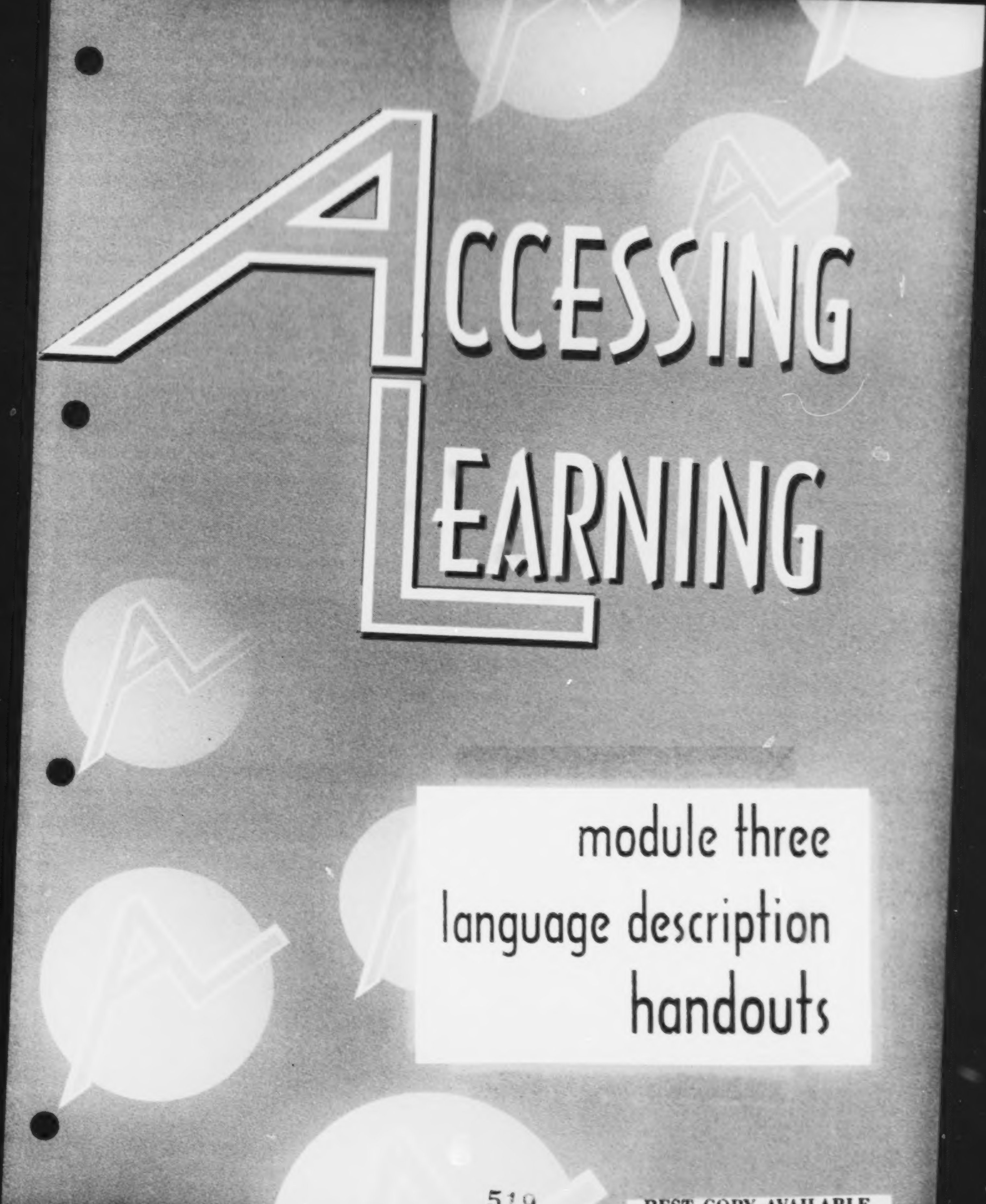
Taxonomy of parts of a lathe (part/whole)


Pictorial drawings
isometric
oblique
planometric
perspective

Taxonomy of types of pictorial drawings (class/subclass)


Fibre
animal (protein)
plant (cellulose)
chemical (synthetic)
wool
silk
cotton
flax
rayon
polyester
acrylic
cashmere

Taxonomy of types of fibre (class/subclass)



ACCESSING LEARNING

module three
language description
handouts

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

TEXT 1: REPORT (COMMERCE)

The following passage examines types of equities and assets.

Types of Equities

1 ***Owner's Equity***

Proprietor's funds will consist of three items. Firstly, there will be the money invested in the business by the owner, ie capital. Secondly, added to this will be any profits which the business has made. Thirdly, any drawings which the owner made from the business (eg cash for personal use) will be deducted.

2 ***Long Term Liabilities***

These are debts which have to be repaid over a longer period of time. An example might be a loan from a bank for the purchase of a building or a motor vehicle repayable over five years.

3 ***Current Liabilities***

These are debts which have to be repaid in a relatively short period of time. Current liabilities would include accounts payable (eg where goods are supplied on credit and the business owes the supplier for the stock received) or a bank overdraft.

Types of Assets

1 ***Fixed Assets***

Fixed assets would include such items as motor vehicles, machinery and equipment. Fixed assets do not change greatly over the period of a year.

2 ***Current Assets***

Current assets include such items as cash on hand, accounts receivable (money owed to the firm by individuals or other businesses) and stock. Current assets will change repeatedly over the period of a year.

3 ***Investments***

In some instances the business may invest part of its funds by buying Government Securities or by purchasing shares in other businesses. However, if no investments have been made, this item will not appear on the balance sheet.

4 ***Intangibles***

As the name suggests, intangibles are assets which cannot be seen or touched. They are nevertheless valuable to a firm and include items such as goodwill and possession of patents.

Using the headings (or classifications) for equities or assets set out above we can now construct a more detailed balance sheet.

Adapted from: *Commerce Two*,
B. Parker, T. Clarke, P. Carter

TEXT 2: REPORT (GEOGRAPHY)

This section relates the physical environment to living things.

An **ecosystem** is the system by which a community of plants or animals are able to live. Ecosystems are made up of the physical environment and the **biome**. The physical environment consists of all the things necessary for life, such as water, soil, landforms and climate. The biome is the community of living things in this environment.

The **biosphere** is the surface of the earth — the land, water and air above it in which all living things are found. The biosphere is made up of hundreds of different ecosystems. In all the different ecosystems, plants and animals depend on one another in much the same way as parts of a stereo system depend on other parts. Geographers study ecosystems and look at ways in which many have been changed by the activities of people.

Introducing Geography, S. Weingarth

TEXT 3: REPORT (MATERIALS TECHNOLOGY)

Parts of a lathe
The lathe is divided into four main parts: bed, headstock, tailstock and carriage.

Bed
The bed is the foundation of the lathe. It is made from cast iron and rigidly secured to the lathe stand. The top surface of the bed is accurately machined to form the bed ways or vee ways. All of the other parts of the lathe sit on and slide along these bed ways. The accuracy of the lathe is determined by the accuracy of the ways and care should always be taken to keep them in perfect condition.

Headstock
The headstock is secured to the left-hand end of the bed and sits on the bed ways, its main purpose being to supply the motive power for the lathe. The headstock contains the belts, pulleys or gears which bring the power from the motor to the work piece so that it can be machined.

Tailstock
The tailstock has the job of supporting the loose end of the metal while it is machined. The tailstock can be used to support a drill chuck for drilling as well as other devices.

Carriage
The carriage is used to support the lathe tool and move it so as to cut the metal. It slides along the bed ways.

Metalworking Part One, Second Edition,
Barry W. Ableson, Allan J. Pateman

TEXT 4: REPORT (DRAWING)

PICTORIAL DRAWINGS

Introduction

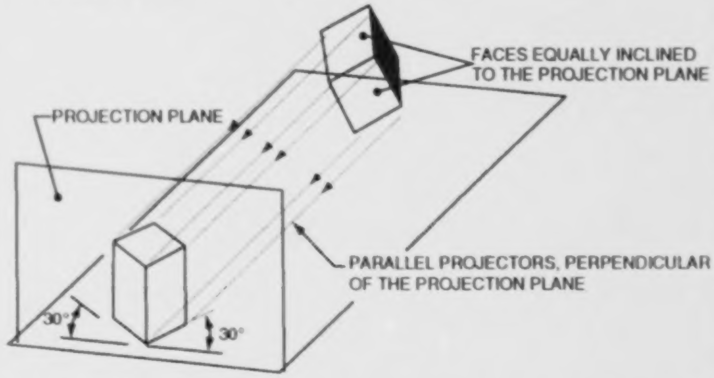
The main use made of pictorial drawings is in technical illustrations, catalogues and spare parts manuals. People who have had no previous technical training can understand these 'pictures' as they show the three faces of the object.

Four pictorial drawing methods are used by draftsmen:

1. Isometric 2. Oblique 3. Planometric 4. Perspective
Pictorial drawings are all produced on a single projection plane which is so placed as to give a projection showing the main faces of the object. It is very unusual to show hidden outlines, sections being used instead to show internal details.

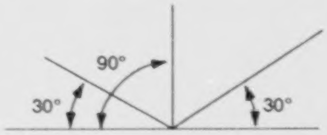
Isometric drawings

This projection is produced on a plane that is equally inclined to the principal faces of the object, the projectors are parallel and perpendicular to the projection plane.


FACES EQUALLY INCLINED TO THE PROJECTION PLANE
PROJECTION PLANE
PARALLEL PROJECTORS, PERPENDICULAR OF THE PROJECTION PLANE
30°
30°

The edges of the object are all inclined to the projection plane and the projections of these edges would be 80% of their true length. In isometric drawing this reduction is ignored and the dimensioned sizes are set off on the three isometric axes.

Figure 2 shows the three isometric axes.



Programmed Technical Drawing Book 2 , SI Units
R.K. Mullins & D.A. Cooper

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TEXT 5: REPORT (TEXTILES AND DESIGN)

All about fabrics

During your school years, you will be working with many different types of fabrics. They will be used for different reasons, purposes and in different ways. But what do you know about fabrics?

In this section you will be introduced to the fabrics and the fibres they are made from.

As mentioned in the introduction, fabrics are textile materials that have been woven, knitted or felted together. Fabrics are made from fibres. Fibres are thread-like substances that are spun or twisted into yarns, which are then made into fabrics.

Fibres

Fibres can be divided into three categories.

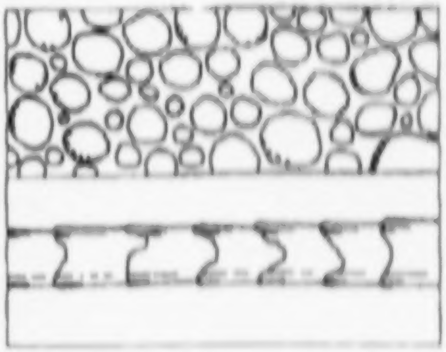
Animal (protein)	Plant (cellulose)	Chemical (synthetic)
wool	cotton	polyester
silk	flax	acrylic
cashmere	rayon	

The most common fibres used are wool, cotton and polyester.

Wool

Wool is the fleece of the sheep that is spun and woven after the animal has been shorn. Different qualities of wool come from different varieties of sheep. Fleeces from merino sheep are most commonly used in Australia.

Wool is a protein fibre called *keratine*. Like human hair, wool fibres have scales which overlap each other. It is because of these scales, which trap in the air, that wool keeps you feeling warm or cool.



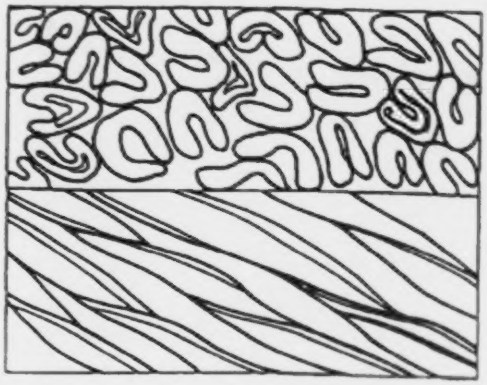
TEXT 5, CONTINUED

Cotton

Cotton comes from the seed pod of the cotton plant. It is a cellulose fibre, consisting of plant cells, and has different properties from protein fibres. The cotton plant is a dark green, bushy plant that grows in warm, moist climates. In Australia, cotton is grown in northern New South Wales and Queensland.

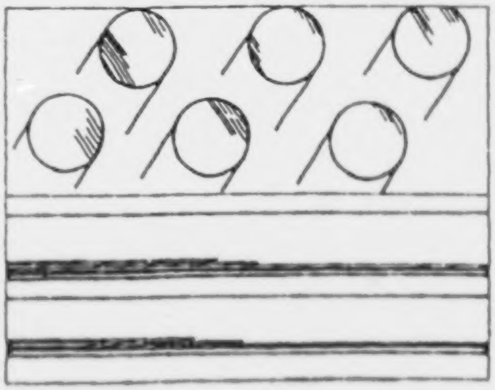
Cotton is a fibre with a gentle twist.

Cotton may also go through a process called mercerisation. This is when cotton is treated in a bath of diluted caustic soda, which strengthens the fibre, gives it a shine and allows it to take dyes more readily.



Polyester

Polyester is a synthetic fibre that is made from by-products of petroleum and chemicals. It is a very straight and smooth fibre.



Textiles & Design,
T. Hynes & E. Kovesdy

TEXT 6: REPORT (HISTORY)

Everyday Life in Rome

This unit will help you build a picture of everyday life in Ancient Rome at the time of Caesar's invasions.

But remember that the life of a Roman person depended on whether they were rich, poor or a slave, and on their sex and their age. Life in Ancient Rome was not the same in 200 BC as it was in AD200, and living conditions were different in Roman Gaul, Roman Africa and Rome itself. So there were many variations to the details of life described below.

Clothes
Roman men and women wore a short-sleeved tunic, tied at the waist. These were usually knee-length for men, and ankle-length for women. Poor people, workmen and slaves would wear these tunics in the street, but the wealthy would always wear a toga over their tunic. This was a large piece of cloth wrapped around the body and draped over one shoulder. It was the symbol of the roman citizen, a sign of status. Cloaks would be worn in cold weather, when leather shoes replaced open sandals. Slaves usually went barefoot.

Eating
Breakfast was usually bread, cheese and a little wine or water. Lunch was a bigger meal of cold meat, vegetables and fruit, again with bread and wine or water. The main meal was dinner in the early evening, perhaps at five o'clock. There would be several courses. Beef, mutton and pork were the most common meats eaten, but rich people treated their guests to more exotic meats, including flamingoes, peacocks, storks, doves and dormice.

Spoons and knives were used, but forks were not, because most eating was done with the fingers. Men usually lay on their side on a couch and helped themselves to food from a low central table; women and children often sat on upright chairs. For many Roman families, the meal would be served by slaves.

Family life
The Roman wife shared her husband's social position outside the home and his authority inside it. Men were very much in control of their children, who were expected to be obediently loyal to their father even when they grew up. This sense of duty helped the Roman army control its soldiers. Fathers found husbands and wives for their children during their teens. Girls could marry at twelve, boys at fourteen.

Skills in History Book 1 — Changes,
P. Shuter & J. Child

TEXT 1A: REPORT (COMMERCE)

General Statement

The following passage examines types of equities and assets.

Classifications

Types of Equities

1. *Owner's Equity*
   Proprietor's funds will consist of three items. Firstly, there will be the money invested in the business by the owner, ie capital. Secondly, added to this will be any *profits* which the business has made. Thirdly, any drawings which the owner made from the business (eg cash for personal use) will be deducted.

2. *Long Term Liabilities*
   These are debts which have to be repaid over a longer period of time. An example might be a loan from a bank for the purchase of a building or a motor vehicle repayable over five years.

3. *Current Liabilities*
   These are debts which have to be repaid in a relatively short period of time. Current liabilities would include accounts payable (eg where goods are supplied on credit and the business owes the supplier for the stock received) or a bank overdraft.

Types of Assets

1. *Fixed Assets*
   Fixed assets would include such items as motor vehicles, machinery and equipment. Fixed assets do not change greatly over the period of a year.

2. *Current Assets*
   Current assets include such items as cash on hand, accounts receivable (money owed to the firm by individuals or other businesses) and stock. Current assets will change repeatedly over the period of a year.

3. *Investments*
   In some instances the business may invest part of its funds by buying Government Securities or by purchasing shares in other businesses. However, if no investments have been made, this item will not appear on the balance sheet.

4. *Intangibles*
   As the name suggests, intangibles are assets which cannot be seen or touched. They are nevertheless valuable to a firm and include items such as goodwill and possession of patents.

   Using the headings (or classifications) for equities or assets set out above we can now construct a more detailed balance sheet.

Adapted from:*Commerce Two*,
B. Parker, T. Clarke, P. Carter, 1988

TEXT 2A: REPORT (GEOGRAPHY)

General Statement

This section relates the physical environment to living things.

Part/Whole Classification

An **ecosystem** is the system by which a community of plants or animals are able to live. Ecosystems are made up of the physical environment and the biome. The physical environment consists of all the things necessary for life, such as water, soil, landforms and climate. The biome is the community of living things in this environment.

The **biosphere** is the surface of the earth — the land, water and air above it in which all living things are found. The biosphere is made up of hundreds of different ecosystems. In all the different ecosystems, plants and animals depend on one another in much the same way as parts of a stereo system depend on other parts. Geographers study ecosystems and look at ways in which many have been changed by the activities of people.

Introducing Geography, S. Weingarth

TEXT 3A: REPORT (MATERIALS TECHNOLOGY)

Technical Classification

Parts of a lathe
The lathe is divided into four main parts: bed, headstock, tailstock and carriage.

Part/Whole Classification

Bed
The bed is the foundation of the lathe. It is made from cast iron and rigidly secured to the lathe stand. The top surface of the bed is accurately machined to form the bed ways or vee ways. All of the other parts of the lathe sit on and slide along these bed ways. The accuracy of the lathe is determined by the accuracy of the ways and care should always be taken to keep them in perfect condition.

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Tailstock
The tailstock has the job of supporting the loose end of the metal while it is machined. The tailstock can be used to support a drill chuck for drilling as well as other devices.

Carriage
The carriage is used to support the lathe tool and move it so as to cut the metal. It slides along the bed ways.

Metalworking Part One, Second Edition,
Barry W. Ableson, Allan J. Pateman

TEXT 4A: REPORT (DRAWING)

PICTORIAL DRAWINGS

Technical Information

Introduction
The main use made of pictorial drawings is in technical illustrations, catalogues and spare parts manuals. People who have had no previous technical training can understand these 'pictures' as they show the three faces of the object.

Four pictorial drawing methods are used by draftsmen:

1. Isometric 2. Oblique 3. Planometric 4. Perspective
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Class/Subclass Classification

Isometric drawings
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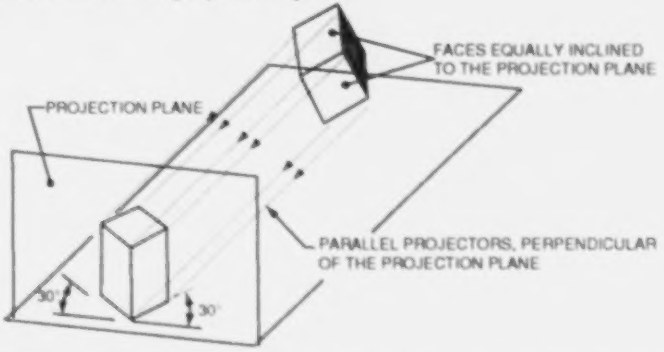
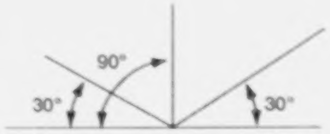

FACES EQUALLY INCLINED TO THE PROJECTION PLANE
PROJECTION PLANE
PARALLEL PROJECTORS, PERPENDICULAR OF THE PROJECTION PLANE
30°
30°

The edges of the object are all inclined to the projection plane and the projections of these edges would be 80% of their true length. In isometric drawing this reduction is ignored and the dimensioned sizes are set off on the three isometric axes.

Figure 12.2 shows the three isometric axes.



Programmed Technical Drawing Book 2 , SI Units
R.K. Mullins & D.A. Cooper

TEXT 5A: REPORT (TEXTILES AND DESIGN)

General Statement

All about fabrics
During your school years, you will be working with many different types of fabrics. They will be used for different reasons, purposes and in different ways. But what do you know about fabrics?

In this section you will be introduced to the fabrics and the fibres they are made from.

Class/Subclass Classifications

As mentioned in the introduction, fabrics are textile materials that have been woven, knitted or felted together. Fabrics are made from fibres. Fibres are thread-like substances that are spun or twisted into yarns, which are then made into fabrics.

Fibres
Fibres can be divided into three categories.

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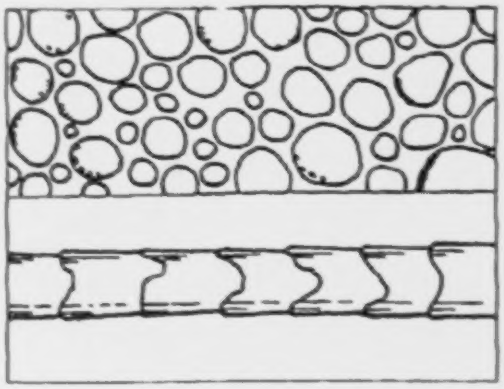
The most common fibres used are wool, cotton and polyester.

Wool
Wool is the fleece of the sheep that is spun and woven after the animal has been shorn. Different qualities of wool come from different varieties of sheep. Fleeces from merino sheep are most commonly used in Australia.

Wool is a protein fibre called *keratine*. Like human hair, wool fibres have scales which overlap each other. It is because of these scales, which trap in the air, that wool keeps you feeling warm or cool.

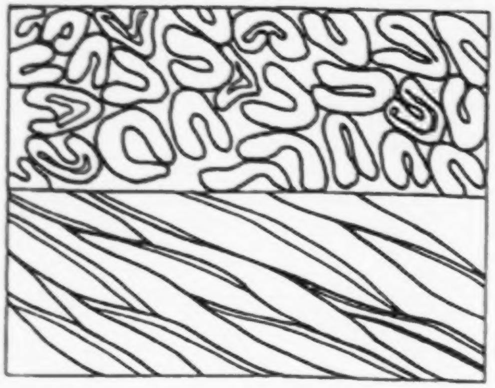


TEXT 5A

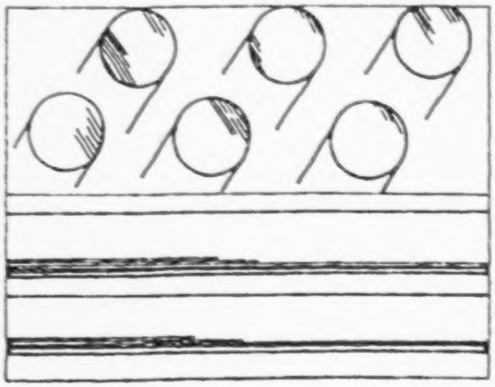
Cotton
Cotton comes from the seed pod of the cotton plant. It is a cellulose fibre, consisting of plant cells, and has different properties from protein fibres. The cotton plant is a dark green, bushy plant that grows in warm, moist climates. In Australia, cotton is grown in northern New South Wales and Queensland.

Cotton is a fibre with a gentle twist.

Cotton may also go through a process called mercerisation. This is when cotton is treated in a bath of diluted caustic soda, which strengthens the fibre, gives it a shine and allows it to take dyes more readily.



Polyester
Polyester is a synthetic fibre that is made from by-products of petroleum and chemicals. It is a very straight and smooth fibre.



Textiles & Design,
T. Hynes & E. Kovesdy

TEXT 6A: REPORT (HISTORY)

Everyday Life In Rome

General Statement

This unit will help you build a picture of everyday life in Ancient Rome at the time of Caesar's invasions.

But remember that the life of a Roman person depended on whether they were rich, poor or a slave, and on their sex and their age. Life in Ancient Rome was not the same in 200 BC as it was in AD200, and living conditions were different in Roman Gaul, Roman Africa and Rome itself. So there were many variations to the details of life described below.

Descriptions

Clothes

Roman men and women wore a short-sleeved tunic, tied at the waist. These were usually knee-length for men, and ankle-length for women. Poor people, workmen and slaves would wear these tunics in the street, but the wealthy would always wear a toga over their tunic. This was a large piece of cloth wrapped around the body and draped over one shoulder. It was the symbol of the roman citizen, a sign of status. Cloaks would be worn in cold weather, when leather shoes replaced open sandals. Slaves usually went barefoot.

Eating

Breakfast was usually bread, cheese and a little wine or water. Lunch was a bigger meal of cold meat, vegetables and fruit, again with bread and wine or water. The main meal was dinner in the early evening, perhaps at five o'clock. There would be several courses. Beef, mutton and pork were the most common meats eaten, but rich people treated their guests to more exotic meats, including flamingoes, peacocks, storks, doves and dormice.

Spoons and knives were used, but forks were not, because most eating was done with the fingers. Men usually lay on their side on a couch and helped themselves to food from a low central table; women and children often sat on upright chairs. For many Roman families, the meal would be served by slaves.

Family life

The Roman wife shared her husband's social position outside the home and his authority inside it. Men were very much in control of their children, who were expected to be obediently loyal to their father even when they grow up. This sense of duty helped the Roman army control its soldiers. Fathers found husbands and wives for their children during their teens. Girls could marry at twelve, boys at fourteen.

Skills in History Book 1 — Changes,
P. Shuter & J. Child

STAGES OF REPORTS

The generic structure or staging of taxonomic reports can be represented as:

General Statement or
Technical Classification ^ Classification

The generic structure or staging of descriptive reports can be represented as:

General Statement ^ Descriptions

The symbol ^ indicates is followed by

Reports classify and describe.

COMMON LANGUAGE FEATURES OF REPORTS

Some of the most important language features in reports are outlined below and related to the questions above.

1. The first sentence or heading of each stage of a report usually indicates what the stage is about. In a sense, each description is like a mini-report, the first sentence of which often provides a general statement or classification.

2. Generalised participants. Participants are the people or things which are being described eg *Romans, men, women, fabrics, cotton, lathe, headstock, drawings, draftsmen, ecosystems, water, air* .

3. Non-attitudinal vocabulary. There are no examples of personal feelings or attitudes in taxonomic reports and they rarely occur in descriptive reports, eg:

   - Wool is the fleece of the sheep rather than 'wool is the beautiful fleece of the soft, white sheep'.

   - The lathe is divided into four main parts rather than 'the lathe, which I hate to use, is divided into four main parts'.

4. Technical/descriptive vocabulary. The language is organised in the text to enable classification and/or definition (see Module Two Glossary of Language Features: the Noun Group). In particular, note position just before the noun in a noun group, where we find the classifier, that is, the word that tells us the type and which may be used to draw a taxonomy.

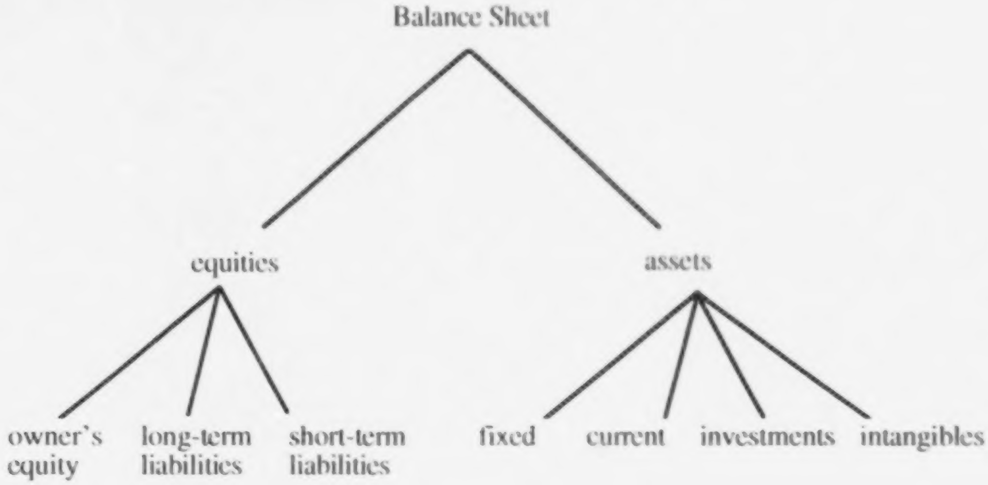
Task 4

Try to draw a taxonomy from the report in your subject.

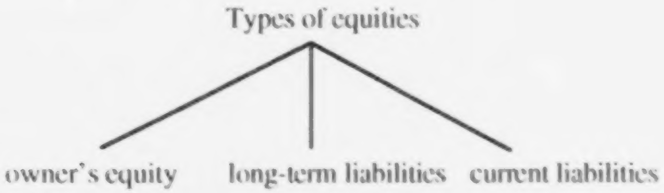
While it is possible to draw a taxonomy from the History text, as it functions principally as a descriptive report, it is probably not very useful to do so.

Commerce Report: Text 1

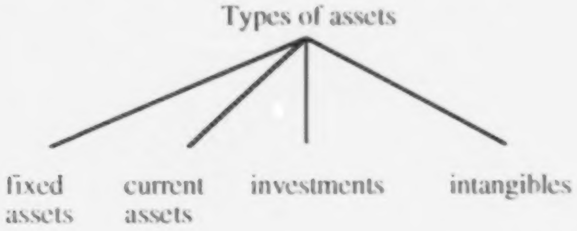
From the *Equities and Assets* report we can draw out the following taxonomies.


Balance Sheet
equities
assets
owner's equity
long-term liabilities
short-term liabilities
fixed
current
investments
intangibles

1. Class/subclass taxonomy of equities and assets


Types of equities
owner's equity
long-term liabilities
current liabilities

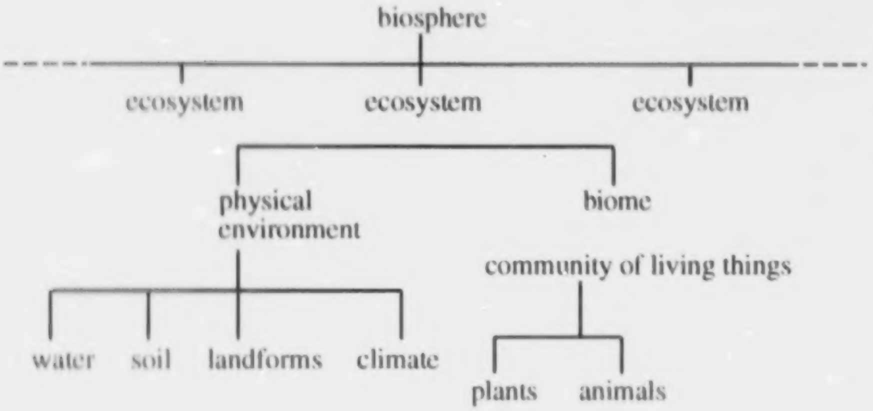
2. Class/subclass taxonomy of types of equities


Types of assets
fixed assets
current assets
investments
intangibles

Class/subclass taxonomy of types of assets (class/subclass)

Geography Report: Text 2

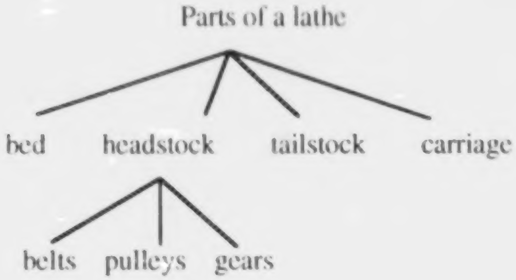
The *Ecosystem* report is also an example of how we define and classify the world. This report takes a feature of the world's ecosystems, and divides it into its component parts.


biosphere
ecosystem
ecosystem
ecosystem
physical environment
biome
community of living things
water
soil
landforms
climate
plants
animals

Part/whole taxonomy of an ecosystem

Materials technology report: Text 3

In the Materials Technology text *Parts of a Lathe* the words *Parts of* indicate the type of taxonomy (part/whole).


Parts of a lathe
bed
headstock
tailstock
carriage
belts
pulleys
gears

Part/whole taxonomy of parts of a lathe

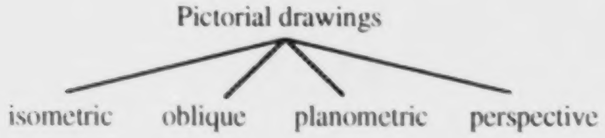
Drawing report: Text 4

In the report *Pictorial Drawings* the taxonomy is introduced by the following sentence:

Four pictorial drawing methods are used by draftsmen:

1. Isometric 2. Oblique 3. Planometric 4. Perspective

The taxonomy is quite simple:

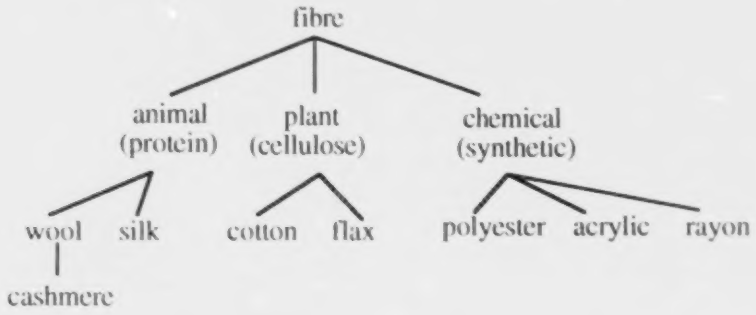

Pictorial drawings
isometric
oblique
planometric
perspective

Class/subclass taxonomy of types of pictorial drawings

Textiles and Design report: Text 5

The taxonomy is introduced by the sentence: *Fibres can be divided into three categories.*

From the text the following taxonomy can be drawn:


fibre
animal (protein)
plant (cellulose)
chemical (synthetic)
wool
silk
cotton
flax
polyester
acrylic
rayon
cashmere

Class/subclass taxonomy of types of fibre

History report: Text 6

Everyday Life in Rome is a different kind of report from those in Commerce, Geography and Technological & Applied Studies. Although the text is about the past, it is about general features of life of all people for a span of time rather than individual people doing particular things at a particular time.

In History, we often refer to generic (general) classes of people, events or things rather than individual people, events or things.

TASK 5

In the History report *Everyday Life in Rome* (Text 6), underline the human participants eg *a Roman person*. Are they specific or general participants? Why is this so?

Commentary

The human participants in this text are all generalised, that is, they relate to general classes of humans rather than individual people. This is characteristic of descriptive reports in History. Teachers need to help students move from writing about individuals to being able to write generalised descriptions.

4-4

EVERYDAY LIFE IN ROME

This unit will help you build a picture of everyday life in Ancient Rome at the time of Caesar's invasions.

But remember that the life of a Roman person depended on whether they were rich, poor or a slave, and on their sex and their age. Life in Ancient Rome was not the same in 200 BC as it was in AD200, and living conditions were different in Roman Gaul, Roman Africa and Rome itself. So there were many variations to the details of life described below.

Clothes

Roman men and women wore a short-sleeved tunic, tied at the waist. These were usually knee-length for men, and ankle-length for women. Poor people, workmen and slaves would wear these tunics in the street, but he wealthy would always wear a toga over their tunic. This was a large piece of cloth wrapped around the body and draped over one shoulder. It was the symbol of the roman citizen, a sign of status. Cloaks would be worn in cold weather, when leather shoes replaced open sandals. Slaves usually went barefoot.

Eating

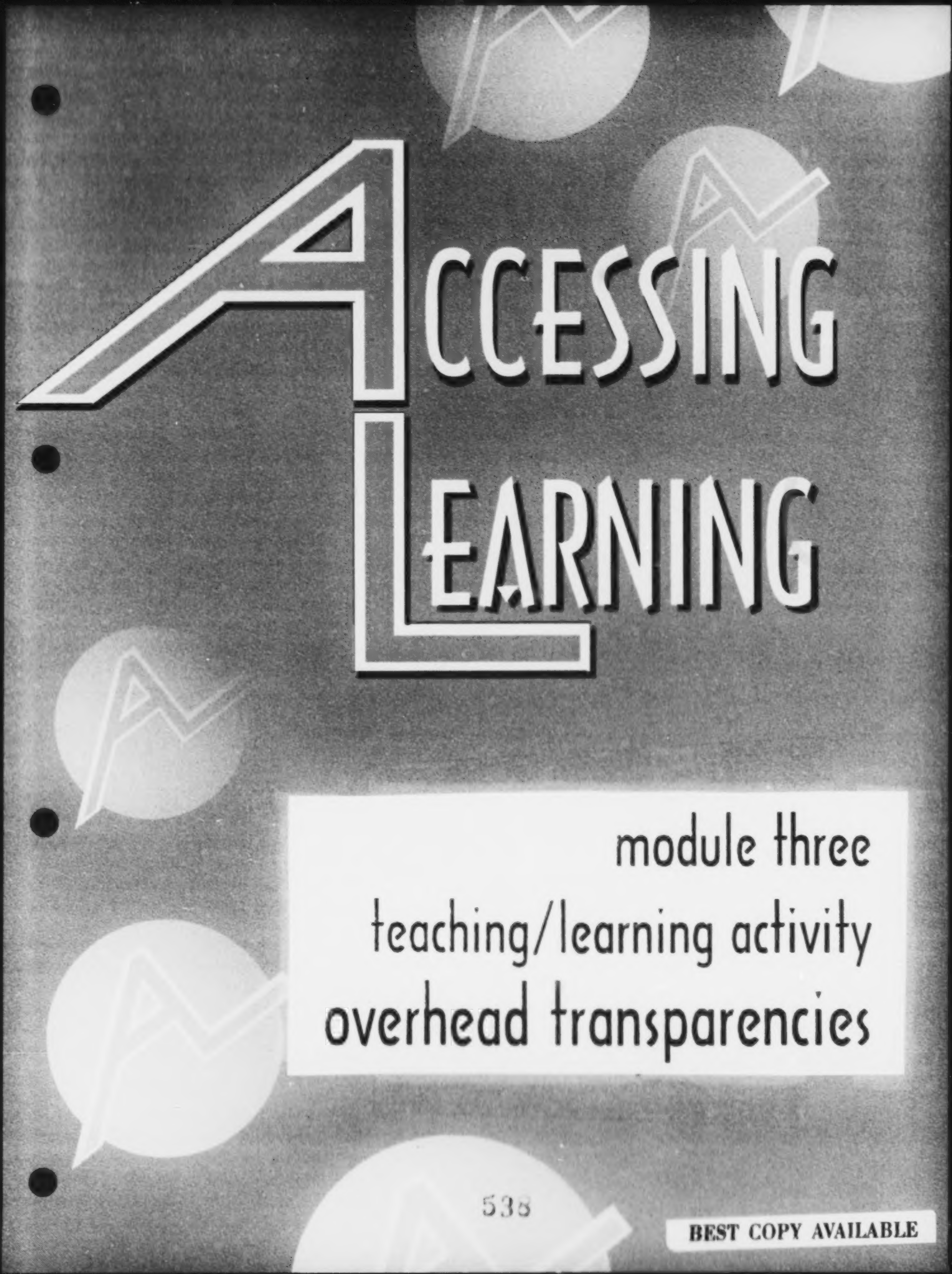
Breakfast was usually bread, cheese and a little wine or water. Lunch was a bigger meal of cold meat, vegetables and fruit, again with bread and wine or water. The main meal was dinner in the early evening, perhaps at five o'clock. There would be several courses. Beef, mutton and pork were the most common meats eaten, but rich people treated their guests to more exotic meats, including flamingoes, peacocks, storks, doves and dormice.

Spoons and knives were used, but forks were not, because most eating was done with the fingers. Men usually lay on their side on a couch and helped themselves to food from a low central table; women and children often sat on upright chairs. For many Roman families, the meal would be served by slaves.

Family life

The Roman wife shared her husband's social position outside the home and his authority inside it. Men were very much in control of their children, who were expected to be obediently loyal to their father even when they grew up. This sense of duty helped the Roman army control its soldiers. Fathers found husbands and wives for their children during their teens. Girls could marry at twelve, boys at fourteen.

Skills in History Book 1 — Changes,
P. Shuter & J. Child



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module three
teaching/learning activity
overhead transparencies

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TASK 1

TEXT 1

How do you refine ~~flower~~ flour

This prossess is long, and you made ~~it~~ the process into a film, it would be very borin Basically all it is, is the grain being ground sifted, ground sifte untill you get when you open a bag of newly bought flo~~u~~ur. In t biginning it gets washed to rem dirt, etc.

Let's say at the biginning put in ~~78~~ 100 kg, only 72 kg woul be packed for us. The other 28 Would be eaten by livstock.

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2

TASK 2

Before examining the responses to Task 1, try rewriting Peter's text to make it an explanation of how flour is refined, without adding any new information.

How did you approach the task?

What can you say about your language choices and the overall structure?

Can you suggest an alternative instruction for Peter's teacher to give the students?

TASK 3

Read through Peter's second version. Identify the language features used to rework the text.

TEXT 2

How flo~~u~~ur is refined

Flour refinement is a long and repetative process. Firstly, the grain is washed to remove dirt, etc. The grain is then simply ground and sifted continously until it's fully refined and suitable for baking. Finally, the flour is packed and sold to wholesalers.

The quantity of flour produced is not equal to the initial amoant of grain. For example 100 Kilograms of grain yield only 72 Kilograms of processed flour and 28 Kilograms of chaf is sold back to farmers.

4

How do you refine flour?

How flour is refined

This process is long, and if you made the process into a film, it would be very boring.

Flour refinement is a long and repetitive process.

In the beginning it gets washed to remove dirt etc.

Firstly, the grain is washed to remove dirt etc.

Basically all it is, is the grain being ground, sifted, ground, sifted, until you get (what you get) when you open up a bag of newly bought flour.

The grain is then simply ground and sifted continuously until it's fully refined and suitable for baking.

(No equivalent sentence in Text 1)

Finally, the flour is packed and sold to wholesalers.

Let's say at the beginning, if we put in 100kg of grain only 72kg would be packed for us the other 28kg would be eaten by livestock.

The quantity of flour produced is not equal to the initial amount of grain.

(No equivalent sentence in Text 1)

For example, 100 kilograms of grain yields only 72 kilograms of processed flour and 28 kilograms of chaff which is sold back to farmers.

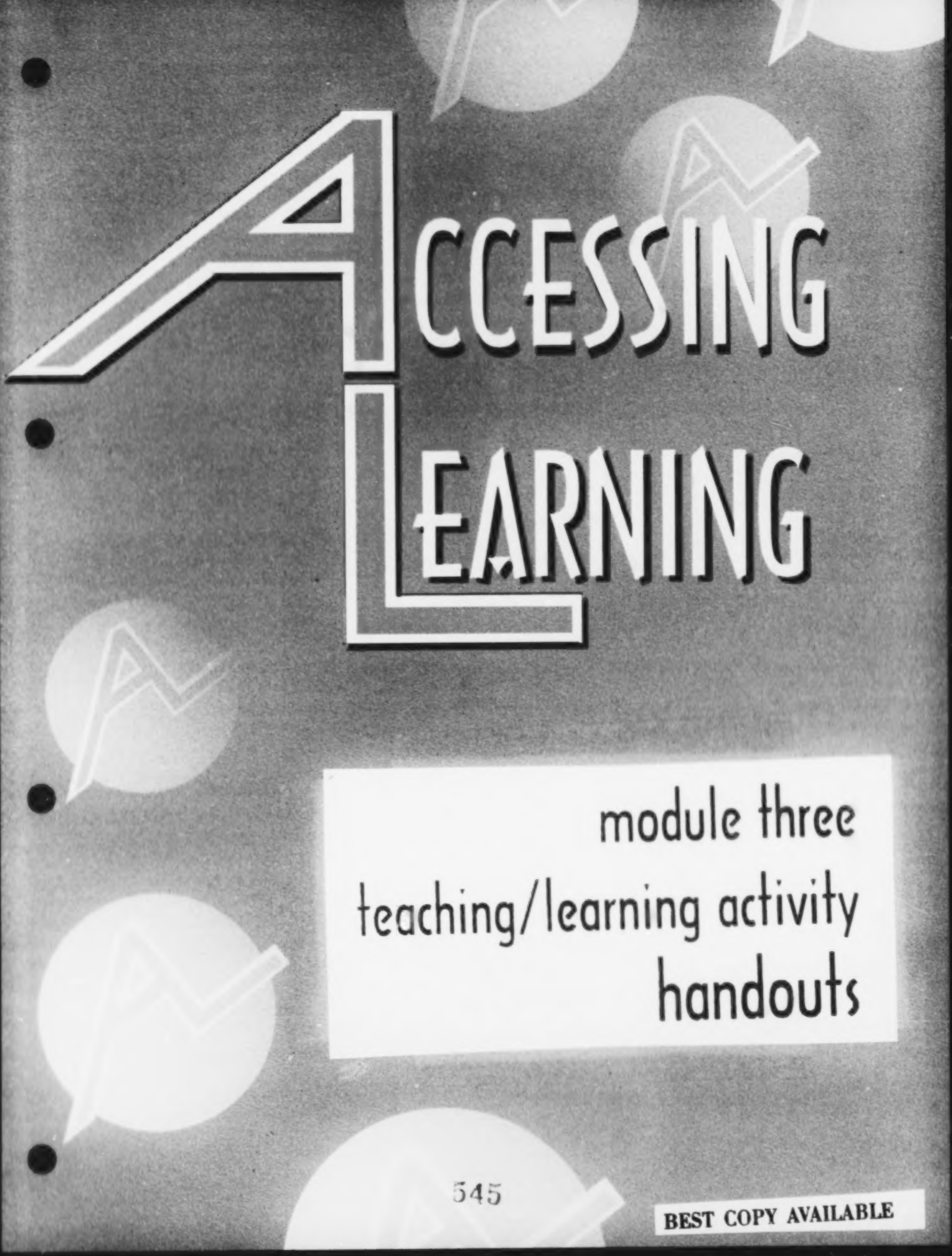
5

TASK 4

Peter's main problem was what aspects of flour to write about. The teacher gave no clues by saying 'Write half a page about flour', yet this kind of instruction is common.

Think about one of your classes and set a homework task that requires half a page of writing in which you expect a piece of report writing.

Write the task and an accompanying set of instructions to be given to your students.



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module three teaching/learning activity handouts

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TASK 1

Text below was produced by a beginning Year 7 student. He was asked by his teacher to produce 'half a page about flour'. Without any more detailed guidance, the student, Peter, produced the following text:

Read the text.

In what ways is it a successful piece of writing? In what ways is it unsuccessful?

What questions did you have to ask yourself in order to answer if it was successful or not?

How do you refine ~~flower~~ flour?

This prossess is long, and if you made ~~it~~ the process into a film, it would be very boring. Basically all it is, is the grain being ground sifted, ground sifted untill you get when you open a bag of newly bought flo~~u~~ur. In the biginning it gets washed to remove dirt, etc.

Let's say at the biginning we put in ~~78~~ 100kg, only 72 kg would be packed for us. The other 28 kg Would be eaten by livstock.

2

TASK 3

Read through Peter's second version. Identify the language features used to rework the text.

How flo~~u~~ur is refined

Flour refinement is a long and repetative process. Firstly, the grain is washed to remove dirt, etc. The grain is then simply ground and sifted continously until it's fully refined and suitable for baking. Finally, the flour is packed and sold to wholesalers.

The quantity of flour produced is not equal to the initial amoant of grain. For example 100 Kilograms of grain yield only 72 Kilograms of processed flour and 28 Kilograms of chaf is sold back to farmers.

ACCESSING LEARNING

module three

introduction to the classroom units

handouts

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DECONSTRUCTION

HISTORY CYCLE - SURVEY

SEGMENT OF TEACHING/ LEARNING CYCLE	DESCRIPTION OF ACTIVITY	PURPOSE OF ACTIVITY	ALTERNATIVE OR ADDITIONAL ACTIVITIES
Preparing the Context	Ask students for their definition of a characteristic.	To check student understanding of concept (assessment).	Give definition and ask students to provide word being defined.
	Elicit characteristics.	To determine prior knowledge (assessment). Establish commonsense vocabulary.	Use photograph of a typical Australian to stimulate vocabulary.
	Ask questions about prior experience with surveys.	To determine prior knowledge (assessment). Establish the relationship between surveys and their purpose.	Relate personal experience of filling in survey eg census.
Developing the Context	Using real surveys, ask students to find common features.	To begin to focus on common key features of surveys.	—
Modelling	Put up version of computer survey handed out for re-assembly.	To consider the appropriate order for stages of surveys.	—

HISTORY CYCLE - SURVEY

SEGMENT OF TEACHING/ LEARNING CYCLE	DESCRIPTION OF ACTIVITY	PURPOSE OF ACTIVITY	ALTERNATIVE OR ADDITIONAL ACTIVITIES
Teacher-led Construction	Mark stages on re-ordered version of OHT.	To demonstrate stages of survey.	—
	Using OHT of stages from modelling, elicit survey on 'What it means to be an Australian in the 1990s'.	To assist students to master features of survey writing.	—
	Focus on language feature of instructions.	To assess students' knowledge of survey stages and language features.	—
	Trial survey in the classroom.	To test effectiveness of survey.	—
Student-led Construction	In groups, students construct own survey for use outside the classroom.	To gather information about contemporary perspectives before studying past perspectives.	—

DECONSTRUCTION PROFORMA

SEGMENT OF TEACHING/ LEARNING CYCLE	DESCRIPTION OF ACTIVITY	PURPOSE OF ACTIVITY	ALTERNATIVE OR ADDITIONAL ACTIVITIES

DECONSTRUCTION

DESIGN & TECHNOLOGY CYCLE

SEGMENT OF TEACHING/ LEARNING CYCLE	DESCRIPTION OF ACTIVITY	PURPOSE OF ACTIVITY	ALTERNATIVE OR ADDITIONAL ACTIVITIES
Preparing the Context	Using a concrete example students o consider what they have to think about when writing a design proposal.	To establish the need for considerations in a design proposal.	Use other concrete example or ask students to suggest things that need to be carried and ways they could be carried.
	Eliciting technical vocabulary.	To develop technical vocabulary.	—
Developing the Context	Eliciting properties.	To develop technical vocabulary. Consolidate students' understanding of abstract concepts (assessment).	Provide questions and properties and ask students to match them.
	Reading passage and underlining technical words.	To develop technical vocabulary.	Have students match word and definitions.
	Building a taxonomy.	To provide a visual representation of the interrelationship between terms.	
Preparing the Context	*Explain purpose of definitions.*	*To establish the concept of definitions.*	—
Developing the Context	*Find meaning of technical words in passage.*	*To find meaning of technical words in passage.*	—
Modelling	*Reconstructing definitions.*	*To demonstrate stages of a definition.*	—

DESIGN & TECHNOLOGY CYCLE

SEGMENT OF TEACHING/ LEARNING CYCLE	DESCRIPTION OF ACTIVITY	PURPOSE OF ACTIVITY	ALTERNATIVE OR ADDITIONAL ACTIVITIES
Teacher-led Construction	*Formally construct a definition.*	*To assist students with writing a definition.*	—
Student-led Construction	*Students construct own definition.*	*To assess student ability to write a definition.*	—
Developing the Context (continued)	Eliciting responses on what needs to be carried on a bicycle.	To establish need.	—
Modelling	Deconstruct stages of a report on designing a tackle bag.	To demonstrate stages in a report.	Cut up stages for students to reassemble.
	Circle lexical chains.	To demonstrate lexical links in a passage.	
	Cloze of connectives.	To demonstrate the role of connectives.	
Developing the Context	Eliciting properties for designing a wallet.	To establish the properties needed for designing a wallet.	Provide an extensive list of properties and ask students to decide which ones are appropriate for the Teacher-led Construction.
Teacher-led Construction	Jointly constructing a report using OHT of stages from Modelling.	To show students how to write in an impersonal way.	—
Student-led Construction	Students individually write design proposal.	To gain knowledge of design considerations needed to write a design proposal (formal assessment.)	—

ACCESSING LEARNING

module four

LANGUAGE AND LITERACY DEVELOPMENT IN KEY LEARNING AREAS

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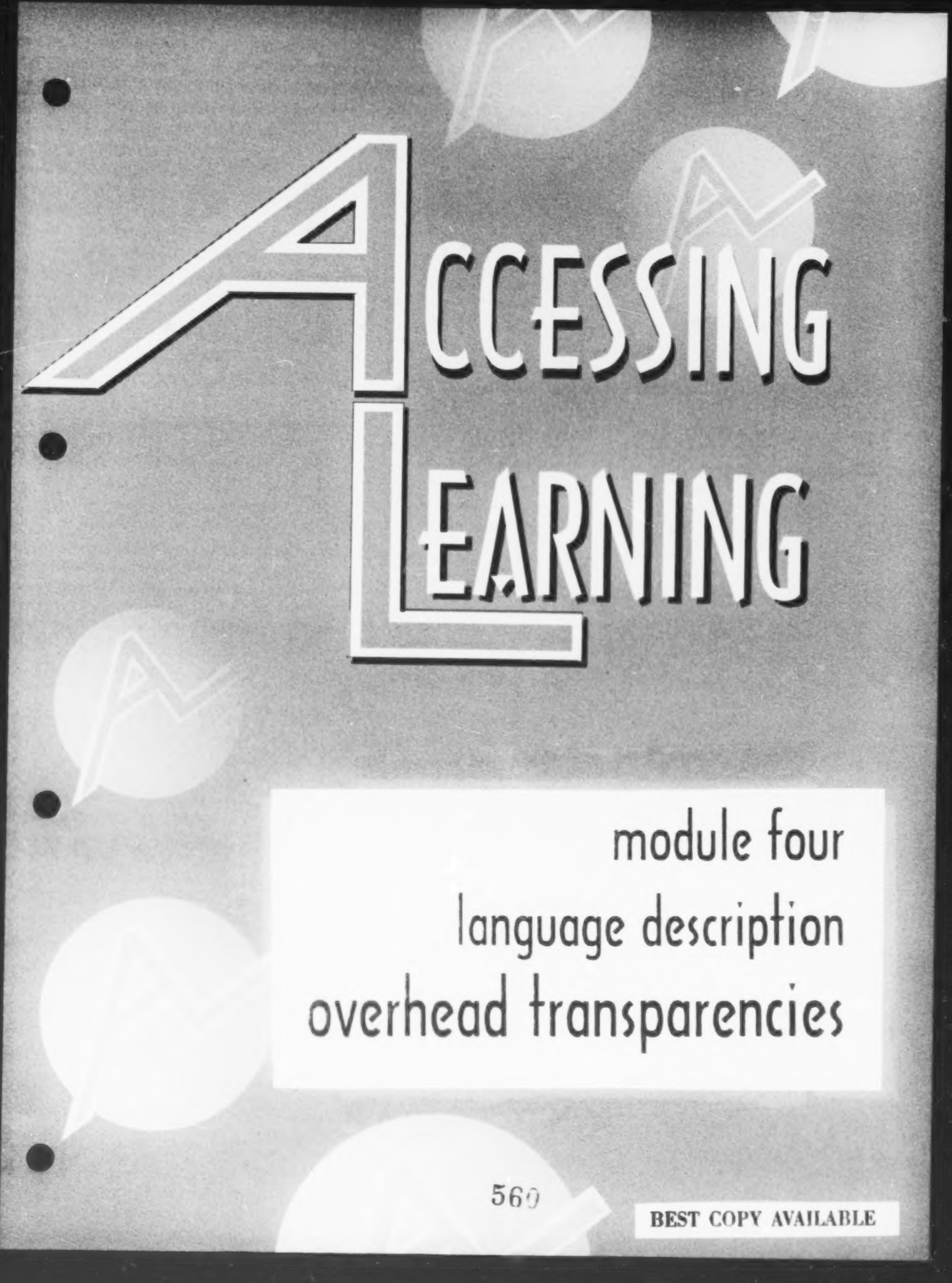

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module four
language description
overhead transparencies

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TASK 1

Handout 1 is a narrative taken from a secondary History text book. Read it carefully and then consider these questions:

What is the purpose of this narrative? Who would read it and why?

Stages of a Narrative

Orientation ^ Complication ^
Resolution ^ (Coda)

^ indicates **is followed by**
( ) indicates **is optional**

See Handout 2 (TEXT 1A)

TASK 3

Re-read the previous text, then consider these questions:

1. Does the text give us **general** information about people/things/events or does it discuss **particular** people/things/events (participants)?
2. Are there expression of attitude or feelings? If so, note a few examples.
3. Narratives relate a sequence of events around a problem, and the events are sequenced in time. How is this done in Text 1? Write down some of the words that are to do with time.

Narratives have these common language features:

- Specific, individualised people/things/events (participants), mainly human.
- Linking words to do with time (temporal connectives) eg, *then*, *when* and *after*.
- Inclusion of relevant information that locates the text in time or place etc. eg, *to the top of the hill*; *down the hill*.
- Constant use of past tense eg, *came*, *hid* and *stayed*.
- Descriptive/attitudinal word choices to enhance the story eg, *wild dance*, *strange men*, *frightened*.
- Mainly action verbs eg, *were standing*, *went*, and *came*. In many narratives (although not in Text 1) verbs referring to what the participant said, or felt or thought (verbal and mental) are also used.
- Interesting and varied use of first position in the sentence (Theme), eg, for many years; *the rocks*, *then the strange men*, and *after they disappeared*.
- Use of specific reference, eg, *Aborigines*, and *themselves*.

TASK 4

1. Return to Text 1 and circle the linking words to do with time (temporal connectives) in the first two paragraphs.

   Are they referring to general or specific time?

   What does this tell us about the difference between the orientation and the rest of the narrative?

2. Underline the action verbs in the last paragraph.

   What role do material processes serve?

3. Underline the Theme of each sentence in the first two paragraphs.

   What pattern emerges?

   What kind of language is used?

6

TASK 5

The recount in Text 2 Handout 5 is taken from a secondary school Commerce textbook. Read it carefully and then consider the following:

What is the purpose of this recount?

Who would read it and why?

Stages of a recount

They can be represented as:

Orientation ^ Events ^ (Re-orientation)

TASK 6

Now you have information on the purpose and stages of recounts, go back to Text 2 and consider your response to the following:

1. How would you divide the text into stages?
2. Label each stage.

8

TASK 7

Re-read Text 2 and consider these questions.

1. Does the text give us **general** information about people/things/events (participants) or does it discuss **particular** participants?
2. Are there expressions of attitude or feelings? If so, note a few examples.
3. Recounts focus on events in a chronological sequence. How is this done in Text 2?

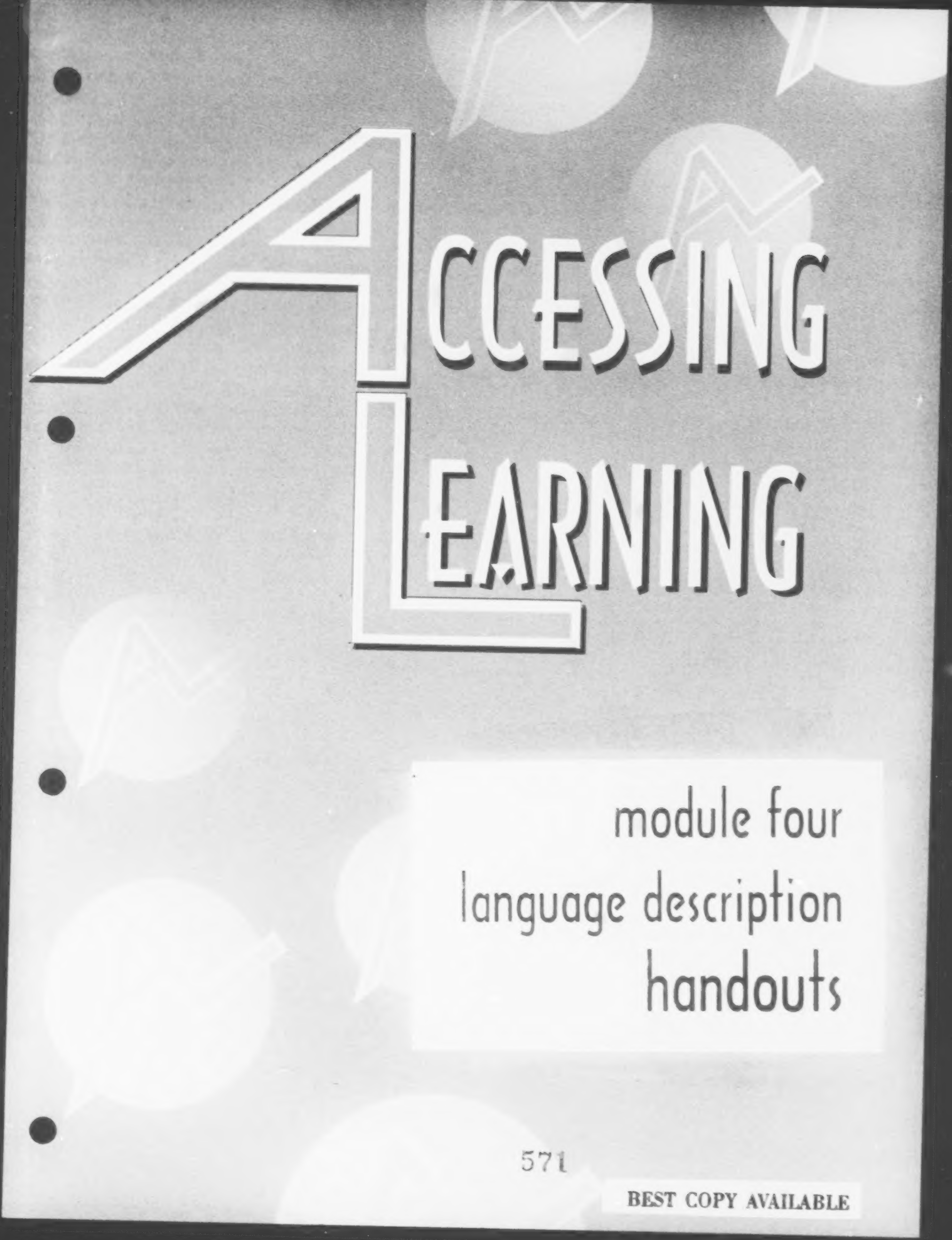
Recounts - features

- As with narratives, recounts focus on individual or specific people and things, events (participants), eg *Jenny*, *pocket money*, and *school*. This is different from reports, where the focus is on general (generic) participants or groups of things.
- Linking words to do with time (temporal connectives), eg *after*, *the first thing*, and *soon*.
- Inclusion of relevant circumstantial information that locates the text in time or place, eg *to the local nursery*, and *on the pots.*
- Past tense (*decided*, *obtained*) as the function of recounts is to retell what happened.
- Descriptive, attitudinal word choices, eg *keen*, *attractive* and *brighter.*
- Mainly action verbs (*painted*, *advertised*) but some relational verbs, eg *were*, *had.*
- Use of specific reference, eg *John*, *Jenny*, and *their parents.*

Handouts 8 to 8-5 are two biographies, one taken from Commerce and one from History and two historical recounts, one from History and one from Geography. Select one biography and one historical recount and examine their staging and language features:

1. How would you divide the text into stages?
2. Label each stage.
3. Examine the use of human participants in a biography and an historical recount. How do they differ?
4. Underline any words or groups of words that indicate time. If they are not actual times or dates such as *5 May*, *April 1917*, replace the phrase with a date eg, *a century earlier* becomes '17th century'.

   See Handouts 9 to 9-4 for stages and commentary.



ACCESSING LEARNING

module four
language description
handouts

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TEXT 1 NARRATIVE (HISTORY)

This story is the work of an Aboriginal child
Stanley Jangala Gallacher.

AWAMRIGURR — THE STRANGERS

For many years there were only Aboriginal people living here. They hunted for food and meat for their families. Sometimes they went to the river to spear fish or other creatures ...

One day, the men went down to the river to spear the fish. As they came near the river, they saw a boat with some strange men in it. The Aboriginal men were frightened so they hid themselves in the bush, waiting for the boat to come. They were standing on the sand talking and they went into the bush.

One of the Aboriginal men went to the top of a hill and stayed there watching the white men come closer and closer. He told his men that the strange men were coming, and one by one they took their spears to the very top of the hill. Then two of the Aboriginals rolled some big rocks down the hill towards the white men. But they saw the rocks coming and hid themselves in a corner. The rocks rolled past them. The Aboriginal men thought that the strange men were killed, but they were hiding behind a big rock. Then the white men saw a black man and fired a gun. The aboriginals ran away and hid themselves again.

When the white men were finished exploring, they started back for their ship but as they went past, the Aboriginal men began to throw their spears. The strange men ran and dodged so that the spears would not hit them. They jumped on board their boat and sailed away from the land, and they never came back again. When they were sailing away, the Aboriginal men were standing on the sand watching them.

After they disappeared, the men did a wild dance until it was dark.

Land of the Southern Cross,
M. Bowering, L. Kerr, L. Soper

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TEXT 1A: NARRATIVE (HISTORY) STAGES

This story is the work of an Aboriginal child,
Stanley Jangala Gallacher.

AWAMRIGURR — THE STRANGERS

Orientation

For many years there were only Aboriginal people living here. They hunted for food and meat for their families. Sometimes they went to the river to spear fish or other creatures ...

Complication

One day, the men went down to the river to spear the fish. As they came near the river, they saw a boat with some strange men in it. The Aboriginal men were frightened so they hid themselves in the bush, waiting for the boat to come. They were standing on the sand talking and they went into the bush.

One of the Aboriginal men went to the top of a hill and stayed there watching the white men come closer and closer. He told his men that the strange men were coming, and one by one they took their spears to the very top of the hill. Then two of the Aboriginals rolled some big rocks down the hill towards the white men. But they saw the rocks coming and hid themselves in a corner. The rocks rolled past them. The Aboriginal men thought that the strange men were killed, but they were hiding behind a big rock. Then the white men saw a black man and fired a gun. The aboriginals ran away and hid themselves again.

Resolution

When the white men were finished exploring, they started back for their ship but as they went past, the Aboriginal men began to throw their spears. The strange men ran and dodged so that the spears would not hit them. They jumped on board their boat and sailed away from the land, and they never came back again. When they were sailing away the Aboriginal men standing were on the sand watching them.

Coda

After they disappeared, the men did a wild dance until it was dark.

Land of the Southern Cross,
M. Bowering, L. Kerr, L. Soper

STAGES OF A NARRATIVE

Orientation ^ Complication ^ Resolution ^ (Coda)

^ indicates 'is followed by'.
() indicates 'is optional'.

Narratives have these common language features:

- Specific, individualised people/things/events (participants), mainly human.
- Linking words to do with time (temporal connectives), eg *then, when* and *after*.
- Inclusion of relevant information that locates the text in time or place etc., eg *to the top of the hill*; *down the hill*.
- Constant use of past tense, eg *came*, *hid*, and *stayed*.
- Descriptive/attitudinal word choices to enhance the story, eg *wild* dance, *strange* men, *frightened*.
- Mainly action verbs eg *were standing*, *went*, and *came*. In many narratives (although not in Text 1) verbs referring to what the participant said, or felt or thought (verbal and mental) are also used.
- Interesting and varied use of first position in the sentence (Theme), eg *for many years*; *the rocks, then the strange men*, and *after they disappeared*.
- Use of specific reference, eg *Aborigines* and *themselves*.

RESOURCE SHEET: TASK 3

○ = temporal activities
bolding = action verbs
underline = Theme

What did the Aborigines think of the newcomers?

This story is the work of an Aboriginal child,
Stanley Jangala Gallacher.

AWAMRIGURR — THE STRANGERS

Orientation

For many years *there* were only Aboriginal people living here. *They hunted* for food and meat for their families. Sometimes they went to the river to spear fish or other creatures ...

Complication

One day, the men went down to the river to spear the fish. As they came near the river, they saw a boat with some strange men in it. The Aboriginal men were frightened so they hid themselves in the bush, waiting for the boat to come. They were standing on the sand talking and they went into the bush.

One of the Aboriginal men went to the top of a hill and stayed there watching the white men come closer and closer. He told his men that the strange men were coming, and one by one they took their spears to the very top of the hill. Then two of the Aboriginals rolled some big rocks down the hill towards the white men. But they saw the rocks coming and hid themselves in a corner. The rocks rolled past them. The Aboriginal men thought that the strange men were killed, but they were hiding behind a big rock. Then the white men saw a black man and fired a gun. The aboriginals ran away and hid themselves again.

Resolution

When the white men **were finished exploring**, they **started back** for their ship but as they **went past**, the Aboriginal men **began to throw** their spears. The strange men **ran** and **dodged** so that the spears **would** not hit them. They **jumped** on board their boat and **sailed away** from the land, and they never **came back** again. When they **were sailing away**, the Aboriginal men **were standing** on the sand watching them.

Coda

After they **disappeared**, the men **did** a wild dance until it was dark.

Land of the Southern Cross,
M. Bowering, L. Kerr, L. Soper

TEXT 2: RECOUNT (COMMERCE)

The Christmas holidays had left Jenny and John short of pocket money so they sat down after their first day at school to consider ways by which they could obtain more money. After some discussion they made a decision. They would start a business.

They had learned that businesses are basically involved in buying and selling goods or services for a profit. The first thing they had to decide was what they were going to sell. Since their parents were keen gardeners they decided to go into business selling pot plants. From their parents they obtained some cuttings of shrubs which would grow easily in small pots. Their parents had a supply of pots from previous visits to the local nursery. Jenny and John also visited the nursery which sold them a supply of pot plants at a reduced price. They pooled all of their remaining pocket money to purchase these plants. Soon they had a sizeable stock of plants to sell. To make them more attractive to the customers they painted the pots brighter colours and printed the names of the shrubs on the pots.

To advertise their pot plants they put a blackboard sign up on their front lawn with details of the various plants and their prices. They also spread the word among their mates at school and in the area around their home. They were now ready for business.

1 What did Jenny and John know about business?

2 What was the first decision they had to make in starting off a business?

3 How did they obtain their stock of goods to sell?

4 How do you think they worked out the prices of the pot plants they were going to sell?

5 What do you think might have happened if they had tried to sell their plants at very high prices?

6 How can you tell that their business was successful?

7 What factors made Jenny and John's business successful?

8 Why do you think the nursery gave them a bigger discount when they went to buy more supplies?

9 What might they have done had they not been successful at selling the first lot of pot plants?

10 Write a similar brief story of two other young people who go into business selling something. This time, however, assume that their business was not successful.

Commerce Two: B. Parker, T. Clarke, P. Carter

TEXT 2A: RECOUNT (COMMERCE) STAGES

Orientation

The Christmas holidays had left Jenny and John short of pocket money so they sat down after their first day at school to consider ways by which they could obtain more money. After some discussion they made a decision. They would start a business.

Events

They had learned that businesses are basically involved in buying and selling goods or services for a profit. The first thing they had to decide was what they were going to sell. Since their parents were keen gardeners they decided to go into business selling pot plants. From their parents they obtained some cuttings of shrubs which would grow easily in small pots. Their parents had a supply of pots from previous visits to the local nursery. Jenny and John also visited the nursery which sold them a supply of pot plants at a reduced price. They pooled all of their remaining pocket money to purchase these plants. Soon they had a sizeable stock of plants to sell. To make them more attractive to the customers they painted the pots brighter colours and printed the names of the shrubs on the pots.

To advertise their pot plants they put a blackboard sign up on their front lawn with details of the various plants and their prices. They also spread the word among their mates at school and in the area around their home. They were now ready for business.

1. What did Jenny and John know about business?
2. What was the first decision they had to make in starting off a business?
3. How did they obtain their stock of goods to sell?
4. How do you think they worked out the prices of the pot plants they were going to sell?
5. What do you think might have happened if they had tried to sell their plants at very high prices?
6. How can you tell that their business was successful?
7. What factors made Jenny and John's business successful?
8. Why do you think the nursery gave them a bigger discount when they went to buy more supplies?
9. What might they have done had they not been successful at selling the first lot of pot plants?
10. Write a similar brief story of two other young people who go into business selling something. This time, however, assume that their business was not successful?

Commerce Two: B. Parker, T. Clarke, P. Carter

Stages of a Recount

Orientation ^ Events ^ (Re-orientation)

Summary of language features:

- As with narratives, recounts focus on individual or specific people and things, events (participants) eg *Jenny*, *pocket money*, and *school*. This is different from reports where the focus is on general (generic) participants or groups of things.

- Linking words to do with time (temporal connectives) eg *after*, *the first thing*, and *soon*.

- Inclusion of relevant circumstantial information that locates the text in time or place eg *to the local nursery* and *on the pots*.

- Past tense eg *decided*, *obtained*, as the function of recounts is to retell what happened.

- Descriptive, attitudinal word choices eg *keen*, *attractive* and *brighter*.

- Mainly action verbs eg *painted*, *advertised* but also relational verbs eg *were* and *had*.

- Use of specific reference eg *John*, *Jenny*, and *their parents*.

8

TEXT 3: BIOGRAPHY (COMMERCE)

The man who didn't really mean to get rich

BY ANABEL DEAN

Dick Smith doesn't like being called a millionaire. He claims he's not interested in making money and didn't set out 'to become a capitalist employing hundreds of people'.

He'd rather be thought of as a plain businessman or an adventurer.

But his life has been far from ordinary. He does things in a dramatic way — whether it's towing an iceberg into Sydney Harbour, jumping a double-decker bus over 17 motorbikes or flying solo around the world in a helicopter.

By the time he was 37 his enthusiasm for adventure and publicity made him the electronics retailing name (and face) on many a shopping list, with an empire of over 50 shops and a gross turnover of $50 million. Success was simply copied from others, he says.

'Everything I've done in my life has had very little originality. I've never had any problems in asking people how they do things', he says.

Coming from a middle class family 'with no money at all', Smith's early life at school was a deceptive failure. His poor academic record and a speech impediment (forcing him to call himself Dick Miff or Dick Fish) created a severe inferiority complex.

Having repeated sixth class, he got a job at 15 as a radio apprentice 'after just scraping through the Intermediate Certificate'.

Three months on a radio factory process line operating a hand press was enough to send him back to the North Sydney Technical College to sit for the Leaving Certificate.

In 1962 he sat through one lecture in electrical engineering at Sydney University, then went back to tech to study electronics and communication — 'then I realised there was no hope of getting through that either and thought, well I'm just a dummy'.

His salvation was his love of radio. At the age of eight he built his first crystal set and by 15 was earning pocket money fixing the neighbours' appliances. At 17 he got his amateur radio licence, 'the only qualification I've got, if you can call a ham radio licence anything', he says.

He began fixing cab radios for Weston Electronics at Castle Cove and thought 'well that's no problem, for the rest of my life I'm going to fix taxi cab radios'. Six years later, in 1968, Smith had saved $600.

His business life began by accident when Weston Electronics stopped servicing the Manly cab radio service. At 22 he opened a shop selling and fixing radios at the Big Bear car park in Neutral Bay (later moving to Gore Hill), with $10 of his fiancee's money and his own $600. He paid $15 a week for rent, giving himself a $40-a-week wage and the sole employee $60.

TEXT 3 (CONT)

'I opened the business not to make money but because no one was going to service Manly cab radios, which is crazy. When I look back on it', he says, 'I started for all the wrong reasons'.

With no money for advertising, he attached a Masonite sign to the roof of his $40 car and, unperturbed by daily police requests to remove the illegally parked vehicle, placed his advertisement either near the Spit Bridge or Roseville Bridge.

'I didn't have enough money for a signwriter to do the sign, so I bought boat registrations stickers and stuck them to the sign. That was my entire advertising budget', he says.

'And the business boomed. I worked my guts out seven days a week and my wife Pip, who was only 17, worked on weekends. People say "you must have taken great risks", but I didn't because I didn't have any money. No one would give me any credit, everyone had gone broke in electronics and everyone had gone broke at Big Bear', he said.

'I'd race out and buy a car radio for cash, bring it in and sell it in an afternoon, and then with that money go and buy another one.'

On the morning of the first sale, customers were scarce. 'I opened the doors of the business at nine, but by 9.30 we didn't have any customers — so I hitch-hiked to all the car dealers to see if I could get a customer. When I got back, my employee had sold an aerial for $6. He was so excited because he said we'd made $3, I said no we'd lost $2 because I hadn't price-marked it and we could have sold it for $8.

'From that second on with Dick Smith Electronics, everything was price-marked until it got to a $50 million turnover and I sold it to Woolworths', he said. 'I had nothing to lose and everything to gain.'

Today the electronics entrepreneur, aged 41, earns his living from the rent on industrial buildings in Ryde. All connections with Dick Smith Electronics were severed because there are 'other things to do in life and I don't have a long attention span', he says.

'I get satisfaction by having a Commodore and giving to charity the money which could have been used for a Rolls Royce. But anything I've done is purely for self-satisfaction.'

That includes the launching of a quarterly magazine *Australian Geographic*.

Commerce Two,
B. Parker, T. Clarke, P. Carter

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TEXT 4: BIOGRAPHY (HISTORY)

CAPTAIN JAMES COOK

James Cook, perhaps the greatest of all English explorers, was born into a poor farming family in Yorkshire in 1728. When James was still young his father was made a farm manager and the family became a bit more prosperous. James had a little education before he started work, first with a grocer and then with a shipowner. His second employer helped him to study further, but at the age of twenty-six, James Cook made the biggest decision of his life — to join the British Navy.

Not many people are willing to go backwards in life but James Cook did. The shipowner had just offered him a chance to be in charge of a ship. Instead he became an ordinary sailor on low pay. Why? He loved the sea and he felt that because England was at war with France, he could become an officer quickly.

His gamble paid off. On his first ship he met a captain who appreciated his abilities and helped him. Within a month he was promoted. In the next ten years he made many trips to North America. He became famous for his maps of the coast and rivers and was soon well known as an excellent leader and navigator.

When Cook was forty years old, the British Navy chose him for an unusual job. He was given command of an ugly, flat-bottomed ship called the *Endeavour*.

Both captain and ship were chosen for their experience and reliability. The *Endeavour* made one trip but James Cook completed three more trips before he was killed in Hawaii.

Land of the Southern Cross,
M. Bowering, L. Kerr, L. Soper

TEXT 5: HISTORICAL RECOUNT (HISTORY)

The European battlefront was a very different affair from the situation in the Middle East. Early in April 1917, the 1st Anzac Corps was transported to that part of northern France known as Flanders. Here they took over a section of the front, south-east of Armentiers, facing the powerful, well-trained German army. Both sides were locked together in an endless array of trenches padded with sandbags and protected by thick belts of barbed wire. The Australians were issued with British steel helmets and gas masks, for the Germans were using poisonous gas in their attacks. The first months were fairly quiet. The intermittent artillery and sniper fire contrasted favourably with the terrible conditions of Gallipoli. The troops enjoyed better rations, patrolled 'No Man's Land' (the area between opposing trenches) freely and watched aerial dog-fights for amusement.

Gradually, the raids on both sides increased and the troops came to appreciate their helmets and gas masks. The enemy raided first on 5 May and a month later an Australian raiding party, all volunteers, retaliated and succeeded in taking prisoners. More raids followed but they were nothing compared to the battle that was to come in July. On the first of that month, the British launched their tragically famous offensive on the Somme. The battle of the Somme was to became a series of battles against the Germans in northern France, lasting several months.

For Australia's Sake,
M. Simmelhaig and G. Spenceley

TEXT 6: HISTORICAL RECOUNT (GEOGRAPHY)

European contact with Papua New Guinea

Between 1528 and 1874, navigators came to know and map the coast. It was another seventy years before foreigners discovered the fertile and well-populated highland valleys.

Colonisation
In 1828 Holland took the west half of the island. In 1884 Britain took the south-east and Germany the north-east. After World War I Australia governed all the eastern half.

The Kiaps were patrol officers whose duties included preventing the supply of firearms, drugs, and alcohol to native people.

After World War II, Australia increased investments of money and people in PNG, its only colony.

Independence, 1975
By 1962, partly as a response to UN pressure for decolonisation, Australia began preparing the country for independence. For example, a few people were given opportunities for tertiary education.

In 1975 PNG became an independent nation. Australia still lends large amounts of money to PNG. Many businesses and public servants are Australian.

Learning to Look Through a Geographer's Eyes, Book 2,
N. Gallagher, J. Oliver & I. Wilson

TEXT 3A: BIOGRAPHY (COMMERCE) STAGES

The man who didn't really mean to get rich

BY ANABEL DEAN

Orientation

Dick Smith doesn't like being called a millionaire. He claims he's not interested in making money and didn't set out 'to become a capitalist employing hundreds of people'.

He'd rather be thought of as a plain businessman or an adventurer.

But his life has been far from ordinary. He does things in a dramatic way — whether it's towing an iceberg into Sydney Harbour, jumping a double-decker bus over 17 motorbikes or flying solo around the world in a helicopter.

Events

By the time he was 37 his enthusiasm for adventure and publicity made him the electronics retailing name (and face) on many a shopping list, with an empire of over 50 shops and a gross turnover of $50 million. Success was simply copied from others', he says.

'Everything I've done in my life has had very little originality. I've never had any problems in asking people how they do things, ' he says.

Coming from a middle class family 'with no money at all', Smith's early life at school was a deceptive failure. His poor academic record and a speech impediment (forcing him to call himself Dick Miff or Dick Fish) created a severe inferiority complex.

Having repeated sixth class, he got a job at 15 as a radio apprentice 'after just scraping through the Intermediate Certificate'.

Three months on a radio factory process line operating a hand press was enough to send him back to the North Sydney Technical College to sit for the Leaving Certificate.

In 1962 he sat through one lecture in electrical engineering at Sydney University, then went back to tech to study electronics and communication — 'then I realised there was no hope of getting through that either and thought, well I'm just a dummy.'

His salvation was his love of radio. At the age of eight he built his first crystal set and by 15 was earning pocket money fixing the neighbours' appliances. At 17 he got his amateur radio licence, 'the only qualification I've got, if you can call a ham radio licence anything,' he says.

He began fixing cab radios for Weston Electronics at Castle Cove and thought 'well that's no problem, for the rest of my life I'm going to fix taxi cab radios'. Six years later, in 1968, Smith had saved $600.

Events continued

His business life began by accident when Weston Electronics stopped servicing the Manly cab radio service. At 22 he opened a shop selling and fixing radios at the Big Bear car park in Neutral Bay (later moving to Gore Hill), with $10 of his fiancee's money and his own $600. He paid $15 a week for rent, giving himself a $40-a-week wage and the sole employee $60.

'I opened the business not to make money but because no one was going to service Manly cab radios, which is crazy. When I look back on it,' he says, 'I started for all the wrong reasons'.

With no money for advertising, he attached a Masonite sign to the roof of his $40 car and, unperturbed by daily police requests to remove the illegally parked vehicle, placed his advertisement either near the Spit Bridge or Roseville Bridge.

'I didn't have enough money for a signwriter to do the sign, so I bought boat registrations stickers and stuck them to the sign. That was my entire advertising budget,' he says.

'And the business boomed. I worked my guts out seven days a week and my wife Pip, who was only 17, worked on weekends. People say "you must have taken great risks", but I didn't because I didn't have any money. No one would give me any credit, everyone had gone broke in electronics and everyone had gone broke at Big Bear,' he said.

'I'd race out and buy a car radio for cash, bring it in and sell it in an afternoon, and then with that money go and buy another one.'

On the morning of the first sale, customers were scarce. 'I opened the doors of the business at nine, but by 9.30 we didn't have any customers — so I hitch-hiked to all the car dealers to see if I could get a customer. When I got back, my employee had sold an aerial for $6. He was so excited because he said we'd made $3, I said no we'd lost $2 because I hadn't price-marked it and we could have sold it for $8.

'From that second on with Dick Smith Electronics, everything was price-marked until it got to a $50 million turnover and I sold it to Woolworths', he said. 'I had nothing to lose and everything to gain.'

Re-orientation

Today the electronics entrepreneur, aged 41, earns his living from the rent on industrial buildings in Ryde. All connections with Dick Smith Electronics were severed because there are 'other things to do in life and I don't have a long attention span', he says.

'I get satisfaction by having a Commodore and giving to charity the money which could have been used for a Rolls Royce. But anything I've done is purely for self-satisfaction.'

That includes the launching of a quarterly magazine *Australian Geographic.*

Commerce Two,
B. Parker, T. Clarke, P. Carter

TEXT 4A: BIOGRAPHY (HISTORY) STAGES

Captain James Cook

Orientation

James Cook, perhaps the greatest of all English explorers, was born into a poor farming family in Yorkshire in 1728.

Events

When James was still young his father was made a farm manager and the family became a bit more prosperous. James had a little education before he started work, first with a grocer and then with a shipowner. His second employer helped him to study further, but at the age of twenty-six, James Cook made the biggest decision of his life — to join the British Navy.

Not many people are willing to go backwards in life but James Cook did. The shipowner had just offered him a chance to be in charge of a ship. Instead he became an ordinary sailor on low pay. Why? He loved the sea and he felt that because England was at war with France, he could become an officer quickly.

His gamble paid off. On his first ship he met a captain who appreciated his abilities and helped him. Within a month he was promoted. In the next ten years he made many trips to North America. He became famous for his maps of the coast an drivers and was soon well known as an excellent leader and navigator.

When Cook was forty years old, the British Navy chose him for an unusual job. He was given command of an ugly, flat-bottomed ship called the *Endeavour*.

Both captain and ship were chosen for their experience and reliability. The *Endeavour* made one trip but James Cook completed three more trips before he was killed in Hawaii.

Land of the Southern Cross,
M. Bowering, L. Kerr, L. Soper

TEXT 5A: HISTORICAL RECOUNT (HISTORY) STAGES

Orientation	The European battlefront was a very different affair from the situation in the Middle East. Early in April 1917, the 1st Anzac Corps was transported to that part of northern France known as Flanders.
Events	Here they took over a section of the front, south-east of Armentiers, facing the powerful, well-trained German army. Both sides were locked together in an endless array of tenches padded with sandbags and protected by think belts of barbed wire. The Australians were issued with British steel helmets and gas masks, for the Germans were using poisonous gas in their attacks. The first months were fairly quiet. The intermittent artillery and sniper fire contrasted favourably with the terrible conditions of Gallipoli. The troops enjoyed better rations, patrolled 'No Man's Land' (the area between opposing trenches) freely and watched aerial dog-fights for amusement. Gradually, the raids on both sides increased and the troops came to appreciate their helmets and gas masks. The enemy raided first on 5 May and a month later an Australian raiding party, all volunteers, retaliated and succeeded in taking prisoners. More raids followed but they were noting compared to the battle that was to come in July. On the first of that month, the British launched their tragically famous offensive on the Somme.
Re-orientation	The battle of the Somme was to became a series of battles against the Germans in northern France, lasting several months.

For Australia's Sake,
M. Simmelhaig and G. Spenceley

9-4

TEXT 6A: HISTORICAL RECOUNT (GEOGRAPHY) STAGES

	European contact with Papua New Guinea
Orientation	Between 1528 and 1874, navigators came to know and map the coast. It was another seventy years before foreigners discovered the fertile and well-populated highland valleys.
Events	**Colonisation** In 1828 Holland took the west half of the island. In 1884 Britain took the south-east and Germany the north-east. After World War I Australia governed all the eastern half. The Kiaps were patrol officers whose duties included preventing the supply of firearms, drugs, and alcohol to native people. After World War II, Australia increased investments of money and people in PNG, its only colony. **Independence, 1975** By 1962, partly as a response to UN pressure for decolonisation, Australia began preparing the country for independence. For example, a few people were given opportunities for tertiary education. IN 1975 PNG became an independent nation. Australia still lends large amounts of money to PNG. Many businesses and public servants are Australian.

Learning to Look Through a Geographer's Eyes, Book 2,
N. Gallagher, J. Oliver & I. Wilson

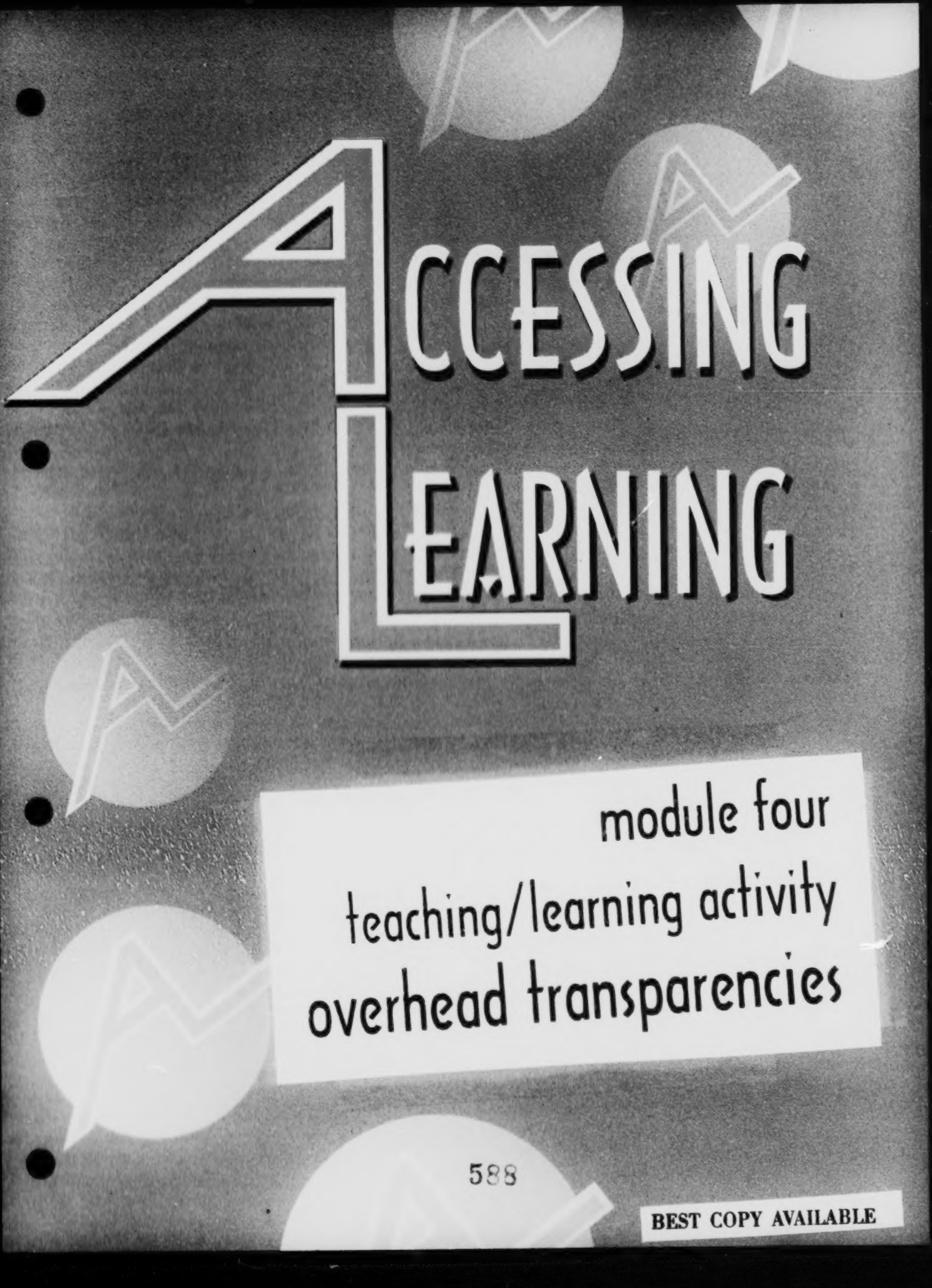
Biography and Historical Recount: Language Features

Commentary

The answers to 1 and 2 are marked on the texts marked 'Stages', Handouts 9 to 9–4.

3. The significant difference between biographical and historical recounts lies in the use of specific participants in biographies eg *Dick Smith* and generalised participants in historical recounts eg *Anzacs*. While writing about specific participants comes easily to students, they need support in the use of generalised participants to make their writing more abstract.

4. Students often misunderstand or even ignore time reference that is not actually stated as a date. Practice in correctly interpreting this kind of time reference encourages accurate reading of a text and expands the repertoire available to them in their writing.



ACCESSING LEARNING

module four

teaching/learning activity overhead transparencies

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TASK 1

Read the following description of the jigsaw activity.

How does jigsaw differ from other reading activities?

> In a jigsaw activity groups of students read different but connected passages, each of which supplies some part of what they need to know. They then come together to exchange and pool their information and are thereby enabled to reconstruct a complete picture of a situation or perform a task.
>
> Penny Ur (1984) p 152

2

Final Task Questions

1. Who is Baboushka?
2. What does she like doing most?
3. Who visited her?
4. Why didn't she follow them?
5. What did Baboushka do as she tried to follow them?
6. Has she stopped searching?
7. In which order do the parts of the story belong?
8. Match each part of the story to a stage of a narrative.

The story of Baboushka comes from Russia

Orientation	**Baboushka was a housewife** who kept the cleanest house in the whole village. In fact, that is all she was interested in. When a new star appeared in the sky, she wasn't interested. She kept cleaning.
Complication	**But then** there was a knock on the door. Baboushka opened the door. There were three kings outside! They wanted to stay at Baboushka's house until night-time, when they would follow the star again. They said that the star would lead them to a baby called Jesus who would be king of Earth and Heaven. Baboushka made them a lovely meal, and they stayed until night-time. **When night came**, the kings were ready to follow the star. They asked Baboushka if she would come with them. They said she could take the baby some food or a toy as a present. But Baboushka said she would have to clean first, and would follow later on. So she cleaned and cleaned… until she fell asleep.
Resolution	**When she woke up**, it was morning. Because it was morning, Baboushka could not see the star, and so she could not follow the kings. She went from place to place asking people if the kings had been there. Yes, they had, but now they had gone. At each place she stopped, she left some of her presents for the little children.
Coda	**The Russian people** say that Baboushka is still looking, and it is she who leaves presents for children at Christmas.

4

STEPS IN THE JIGSAW PROCEDURE

Pre-reading

- Preparation
- Grouping

Reading

- Reading
- Task
- Teacher checks comprehension

Post-reading

- Re-grouping
- Task

BENEFITS OF USING THE JIGSAW ACTIVITY

- Jigsaw provides the opportunity to focus on generic stages and characteristic language features of the genre being studied. This is particularly useful for the Modelling stage of the Teaching/Learning Cycle.
- There is an almost total absence of **chalk-and-talk** by the teacher which allows the students to take a more active role in the reading and learning process.
- There is a high retention rate of materials used.
- All readers, both confident and struggling, are given a real reason and motivation for attempting to comprehend the materials.
- The jigsaw adds an interesting and entertaining variety into the teaching situation for both students and teachers.
- There is an increased focus on cooperative behaviour between students in the classroom.

JIGSAW VARIATIONS

Grouping

Text types

Text division

Text delivery

Text sources

Task design

6

TASK 4

Handout 5 is a jigsaw that has been developed from *An Introduction to Understanding Computers* for Technological and Applied Studies students.

How would you organise the lesson in which you used this jigsaw?

It is written in the report genre. How do the tasks support the language features critical to report writing?

Points to Remember

Texts for jigsaw must be:

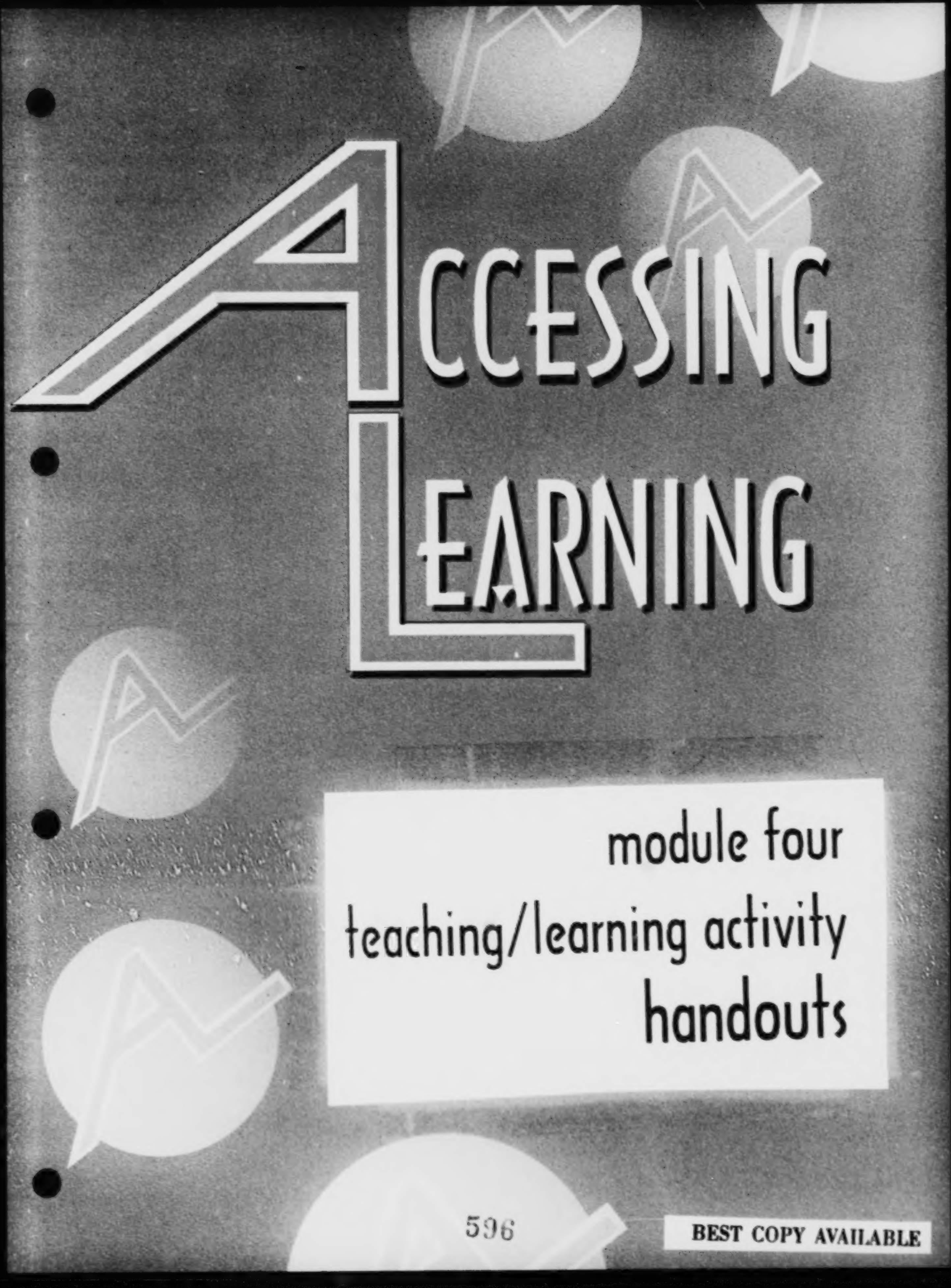
- engaging and relevant
- appropriate length according to ability of students, time available etc.

Tasks must:

- motivate students to come to a solution
- be relevant and achievable
- ensure each student's piece of the jigsaw is necessary for completion of the task
- emphasise collaboration.

Teacher should:

- be organised for the first and second groupings
- check that people in the first group understand text
- monitor the group work appropriately
- give clear instructions.



ACCESSING LEARNING

module four
teaching/learning activity handouts

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A SAMPLE JIGSAW

Learner Task 2

> The jigsaw *Baboushka.* has been developed for use with a class exploring the structure of a narrative. (See the **The Language We Use for Recounting**.) Its purpose is to highlight the stages of a narrative by asking the students to re-assemble a narrative which has been divided into its generic stages. (It would therefore be a useful activity for the **Modelling** stage of a unit of work which is to result in narrative writing.)
>
> Individually read through the procedure below, or in a group situation, ask one member to act as teacher and role play the jigsaw activity with you.

Procedure

1. Write the first sentence *The Story of Baboushka comes from Russia* on the black board. Ask students to predict what the story will be about. This process activates their schemata. Check understanding of the name **Baboushka** (it means grandmother in Russian). Discuss different cultural perceptions of Christmas and Santa Claus, drawing on student knowledge and outside sources. Remind students of the stages in a narrative (orientation, complication, resolution, coda).

2. Put students into 4 groups. Each group receives a different part (stage) of the narrative. The group reads its part and answers the questions designed to ensure its understanding. The teacher checks that all students understand their section of the jigsaw.

3. Ask students to regroup so that each new group has a member who has read Parts A, B, C and D of the narrative.

First grouping: AAAAAA BBBBBB CCCCCC DDDDDD

Second grouping: ABCD ABCD ABCD ABCD ABCD ABCD

4. Ask students to answer the final task questions. They should then try to identify the correct order of the stages by retelling them to each other. When they have completed the reordering they should be able to match each part to the generic stage labels which have remained on the blackboard. Ask them to identify the language signals at the beginning of each stage which helped them decide on the correct order etc.

Final Task

1. Who is Baboushka?
2. What does she like doing most?
3. Who visited her?
4. Why didn't she follow them?
5. What did Baboushka do as she tried to follow them?
6. Has she stopped searching?
7. In which order do the parts of the story belong?
8. Match each part of the story to a stage of a narrative.

SAMPLE JIGSAW - to be cut into four parts for role play of jigsaw

The story of Baboushka comes from Russia.

BABOUSHKA PART C

Baboushka was a housewife who kept the cleanest house in the whole village. In fact, that is all she was interested in. When a new star appeared in the sky, she wasn't interested. She kept cleaning.

1. What did Baboushka like doing most?
2. Was she easily distracted from it?

BABOUSHKA PART A

But then there was a knock on the door. Baboushka opened the door. There were three kings outside! They wanted to stay at Baboushka's house until night-time, when they would follow the star again. They said that the star would lead them to a baby called Jesus who would be king of Earth and Heaven. Baboushka made them a lovely meal, and they stayed until night-time.

When night came, the kings were ready to follow the star. They asked Baboushka if she would come with them. They said she could take the baby some food or a toy as a present. But Baboushka said she would have to clean first, and would follow later on. So she cleaned and cleaned… until she fell asleep.

1. Who was at the door?
2. What did they want?
3. Where would the star lead them?
4. What could Baboushka give as a present?
5. What did she say she had to do first?

BABOUSHKA PART D

When she woke up, it was morning. Because it was morning, Baboushka could not see the star, and so she could not follow the kings. She went from place to place asking people if the kings had been there. Yes, they had, but now they had gone. At each place she stopped, she left some of her presents for the little children.

1. Why could Baboushka not see the star?
2. What did Baboushka do?

BABOUSHKA PART B

The Russian people say that Baboushka is still looking, and it is she who leaves presents for children at Christmas.

3. Who do Russians believe leaves presents for children at Christmas?

The story of Baboushka comes from Russia

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- Grouping

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- There is an increased focus on cooperative behaviour between students in the classroom.

JIGSAW VARIATIONS

Grouping

Instead of randomly assigning ABC groupings according to where the students are sitting in the class, the teacher can take the opportunity to structure the group combinations eg to group struggling readers with confident readers.

Text types

Information can be complementary or conflicting. For example the jigsaw can consist of:

- parts of a single text;
- points of view;
- different descriptions of the same thing, event etc;
- the different generic stages of a text.

Text division

The text can be cut into any number of parts. Initial and/or final sections can be read as a class.

Text delivery

Audio or audiovisual materials can be substituted for written text.

Text sources

- textbooks;
- newspapers/magazines;
- student written texts;
- teacher written texts.

Task design

Students can be asked to:

- answer questions;
- fill in a grid; and
- draw or complete a map or diagram.

Variations in the task design often engage the students at the literal level of understanding and ensure the accurate content knowledge necessary to participate effectively in the shared grouping. These tasks types can also be used as the format for completing the final task of the jigsaw.

Students can also be asked to:

- move beyond the initial text-based task to higher-order activities such as interpreting and evaluating;
- complete follow-up activities eg use the information gained in the jigsaw to write an essay.

COMPUTER JIGSAW: INTRODUCTION

UNDERSTANDING COMPUTERS

Computers are electronic machines that are being used more and more in industry, business and home situations. Computers have an extremely wide number of uses, from the control units in car engines to microwave ovens.

Computers are electronic

Electronic because the machine uses electronic switches (called gates) in its circuits. These circuits are made microscopically small so that many can fit on a single 'microchip'.

Computers are information processors

Information (or data) can be input **into** the computer by people or other machines, **processed** in the computer, then **output** from the computer and interpreted by people or other machines.

In a similar way, a person can be thought of as an 'information processing system': The nervous system acts as an input device whilst the brain acts as the information processor.

Computers are machines

Despite the claims of some science fiction writers, computers are **man-made devices**; they are incapable of original thought and can only operate within the confines of their original designs.

Computers are programmable

The computer must be given instructions which tell it how to handle information. Without these sets of stored instructions or programs it is unable to operate.

Computers can be instructed to perform many functions

Most computers are multi-functional. Unlike, say, a washing machine — which is dedicated to the single task of washing clothes — a computer can be instructed or programmed to do a number of different tasks. For example:

- play computer games;
- perform complicated calculations in a spreadsheet;
- access and organise information;
- write this paragraph.

A computer is a multi-functional and programmable electronic information processing machine.

The computer system

In a system the separate parts work together to produce a complete working unit. In motor cars the engine, brakes, transmission and steering are all necessary for the car to operate. Each part or component of the system is related to the other parts, and if one part is removed the system does not work as intended. Remove the engine and the car will not be able to driven up hills; remove the steering and the driver will not be able to control the car's direction.

A computer system is made up of a number of interrelated components (parts which are linked together). They must all function for the system to work properly. For example, if a computer does not have a screen (or monitor) it is difficult to check the input (or typing).

5-1

Computer Jigsaw: Part A

Input devices

The main devices that input information into a microcomputer are:

- keyboards
- graphics inputs;
- audio (voice) inputs;
- direct inputs.

1. Keyboards

The most commonly used microcomputer input is the keyboard, similar to that found on a typewriter but with extra keys to access special functions.

2. Graphics input devices

Some of the peripherals that can be used to put drawings into a computer include the following:

a) Mouses/Trackballs use a rotating ball system to transfer hand movements to a pointer on the screen.

b) Joysticks are now used mainly for games and simulations but were once used for drawing.

c) Graphics pads or data tablets contain a fine mesh of wires embedded in a sheet of plastic which detects movement of a magnetic pen.

d) Scanners are used to convert pictures into graphic images that can be stored in a computer's memory.

e) Light pens electronically draw on the screen.

f) Digitisers are articulated arms linked to electronic controls. When the pointer at the end of the arm traces over a drawing, the picture is reproduced on the monitor.

3. Audio input devices

Computers can have microphones attached that allow speech and other sound to be recorded as digital information. Some computers have been developed that can respond to a small range of previously-learnt spoken words. New users have to re-teach the computer to recognise their voice before they can use the system.

4. Direct input devices

Direct input devices communicate with the computer without requiring human contact. Sensors or detecting devices send information to the computer and can be used to detect temperature, movement, electrical current or force. For example, computer sensors can be used in weighing machines or to monitor the temperature inside buildings and to control the movements of robots. Computers can also be linked to other computers and other electronic machines such as cash registers and automatic tellers in banks. The information received can either be processed immediately, or stored for retrieval at a later time.

TASK 5

Draw a taxonomy of the types of input devices used with a computer.

Computer Jigsaw: Part B

The central processing unit (CPU)

The central processing unit is the 'brain' of the computer system. All computers contain a CPU which:

- acts as an extremely fast and powerful calculator which:
  a) takes numbers or characters from the internal memory.
  b) manipulates (adds, subtracts and compares) the numbers according to a set of instructions (called a program) stored in another area of memory.
- handles the movement of data inside the computer.

Processed data from the CPU is stored temporarily in RAM, before output to a monitor, printer or other Input/Output (I/O) device.

The CPU carries out many Millions of these Instructions Per Second (MIPS).

The CPU is a microchip — a piece of silicon smaller than a fingernail with thousands of minute electronic circuits and components enclosed in a ceramic or plastic case. Metal 'legs' act as connectors to the rest of the computer system.

The technology used in the construction of these microscopic circuits is called microelectronics.

TASK 6

Draw a flow chart representing the movement of data from the CPU to the output device.

Computer Jigsaw: Part C

Memory
The computer stores information in memory. Computers use two types of memory.

Volatile Memory
Volatile memory loses the stored contents when its power source is removed. Random Access Memory (RAM) is a common example of volatile memory. Whilst the computer is powered on, the CPU is able to access any information held in the RAM. RAM is used in a computer for its ability to move large quantities of data in an extremely short time period. It provides a buffer between the super-fast CPU and the relatively slow hard disk and floppy disk.

Computers vary in the amount of installed RAM. Until recently, installed RAM was usually measured in kilobytes (thousands of Bytes), but with reduced cost and the increasing demands placed on systems by more and more complex software, it has become common for a system's RAM to be measured in megabytes (millions of Bytes).

Non-volatile Memory
Non-volatile memory can hold its data even after power has been removed from the system. ROM, floppy disks, hard disks and streaming tape systems are all examples of non-volatile memory.

a) **Read-only Memory (ROM)** is permanent. The program data has been burned into the ROM chip. These ROMs are used to hold information or programs that are frequently required by the computer. IBM's PS/2 contains the programming language IBM BASIC in a ROM which allows the system to be started without any external startup when the machine is switched off.

b) **Floppy Disks**: As the name suggests, a floppy disk is a thin, flexible, circular, plastic film coated in magnetic particles. The film is sandwiched between two fabric sheets and housed in a robust outer plastic over for protection. A floppy disk generally stores between 100 kilobytes and 4 megabytes of data. Physical sizes usually range from 3.5" to 8".

c) **Hard Disks**: These generally range in capacities from 40 megabytes to several gigabytes (1,000,000,000 Bytes). Hard disks are able to transfer data much faster than floppy disks. With their increased capacities and speed comes higher cost.

d) **Compact-disc Read-only Memory (CDROM) Drives**: These are a Read-Only device capable of storing up to 650 megabytes on a disc similar to that used to record audio. The data is read from the disc with a low-power laser.

e) **Magneto-optical (MO) Drives**: These generally range in capacity from 20 megabytes to over a gigabyte. Some types are erasable, whilst others can only be written to once.

f) **Streaming Tape**: Tape is generally used to backup or archive large amounts of data from hard disks for security purposes. Due to their heavy usage, hard disks are prone to occasional failure, and backups are essential to ensure data is not lost.

TASK 7

Draw a taxonomy of the memory types in a computer. You may include an example level at the bottom.

Computer Jigsaw: Part D

Output devices

The most common devices that receive the output from a microcomputer are:

- monitors;
- printers and plotters;
- audio (voice, music);
- directly controlled devices.

Monitors

These television-type displays can be in colour or monochrome (black and a contrasting colour such as gold, amber, green or white). These are used to display text and graphics. Modern monitors generally have a higher resolution (dots per unit area) than a television screen.

Printers and Plotters

These transfer the output onto paper, film or card. Several types of printer are in common usage today.

Dot matrix (impact) printers fire a series of pins at an inked ribbon between the print head and the paper to print each character, or to produce graphics.

Daisy wheel and line printers hammer letters against an inked or carbon-film ribbon to produce letter-quality print.

Thermal printers create an image on heat-sensitive paper by contacting hot pins with the paper.

Ink jet printers spray fine droplets of ink onto paper through a special nozzle.

Laser printers use electrical charges, plastic powder and a laser or LED array to produce output of near-typeset quality.

Plotters use a series of pens held in a movable arm to draw an image on large-format paper or film. Plotters are used in architectural and general CAD applications.

Audio Devices

These output sound to enhance games, applications and learning-aids such as multimedia encyclopaedias and simulations.

Directly-controlled Devices

With appropriate software, computers can produce signals which directly control machines and instruments. Examples of directly-controlled devices include:

- traffic lights;
- air-conditioning systems;
- mass-production machinery (such as CNC lathes).

TASK 8

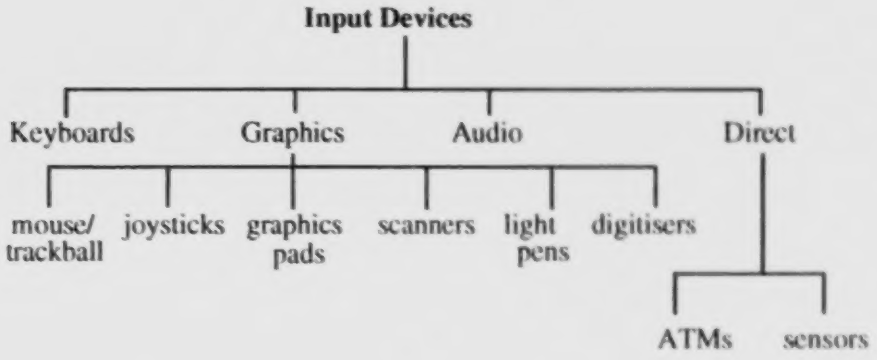
Draw a taxonomy of the kinds of output devices used with a computer.

TASK 9

Having completed Tasks 5–8 take some time to compare your responses to those below, then, list the steps you would use to organise the stages of this jigsaw lesson.

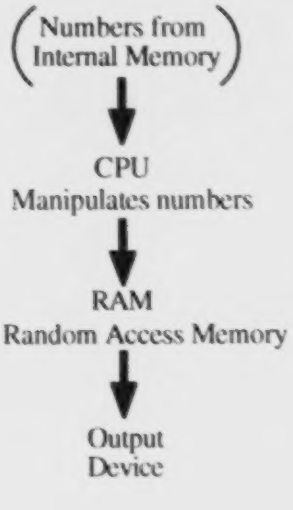
Learner Task 5 (Jigsaw Part A) Solution

Taxonomy of input devices


Input Devices
Keyboards
Graphics
Audio
Direct
mouse/ trackball
joysticks
graphics pads
scanners
light pens
digitisers
ATMs
sensors

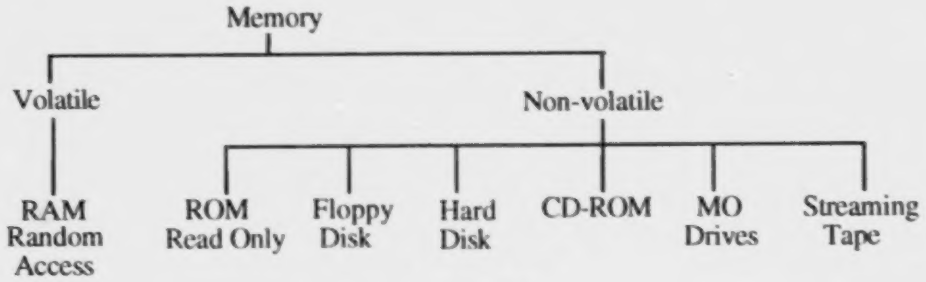
Learner Task 6 (Jigsaw Part B) Solution

Flow chart of data from CPU to output device


Numbers from Internal Memory
CPU
Manipulates numbers
RAM
Random Access Memory
Output Device

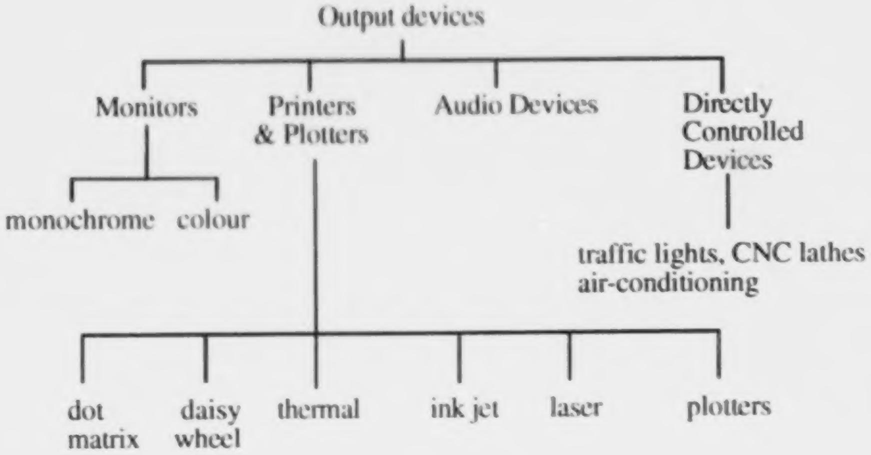
Learner Task 7 (Jigsaw Part C) Solution

Taxonomy of memory types


Memory
Volatile
Non-volatile
RAM Random Access
ROM Read Only
Floppy Disk
Hard Disk
CD-ROM
MO Drives
Streaming Tape

Learner Task 8 (Jigsaw Part D) Solution

Taxonomy of output devices


Output devices
Monitors
Printers & Plotters
Audio Devices
Directly Controlled Devices
monochrome
colour
traffic lights, CNC lathes air-conditioning
dot matrix
daisy wheel
thermal
ink jet
laser
plotters

7

JIGSAW: FINAL TASK 9

1. Matching Activity

Using information from each group, match the components of a computer to their definitions.

Component	**Definition**
Output Devices	These allow data to be entered into a computer. The keyboard is a common example but other similar devices include mouses, joysticks, scanner and sensors.
Central Processing Unit (CPU)	The location of data before and after it has been processed by the CPU.
Input Devices	The 'brain' of the computer system.
Memory	These allow processed data to be accessed by the user. The most common of these include monitors and printers.

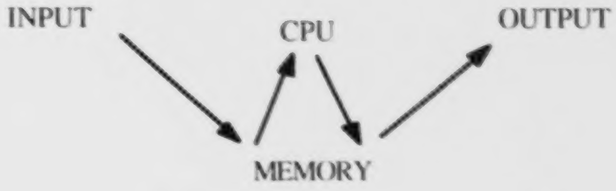
2. Design a flow chart that shows the interrelationship of each of these components.

Jigsaw: Final Task 9 Answers

1.

Component	Definition
Input Devices	These allow data to be entered into a computer. The keyboard is a common example but other similar devices include mouses, joysticks, scanner and sensors.
Central Processing Unit (CPU)	The 'brain' of the computer system.
Output Devices	The location of data before and after it has been processed by the CPU.
Memory	These allow processed data to be accessed by the user. The most common of these include monitors and printers.

2.



ACCESSING LEARNING

module five

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LANGUAGE AND LITERACY DEVELOPMENT IN KEY LEARNING AREAS

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ACCESSING LEARNING

module five

language description

overhead transparencies

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TASK 1

The working texts are seven procedures/protocols taken from textbooks in Technological and Applied Studies, Commerce and Geography. Read the one(s) relevant to your subject area(s) and consider the following:

What is the purpose of this procedure/protocol?

Who would read it and why?

2

The stages of a procedure are:

Goal ^ (Materials) ^ Method

The stages of a protocol can be stated as:

Goal ^ General Conditions

TASK 2

Now that you have information on the purpose and structure of procedures and protocols, go back to the texts from your subject area and consider these questions:

How would you divide the text into stages?
What is the purpose of each stage?

TASK 3

Reread the texts relevant to you and consider these questions:

Does the text use mainly statements or commands?

How does the reader know in what order to do things?

Are the participants mainly human or non-human?

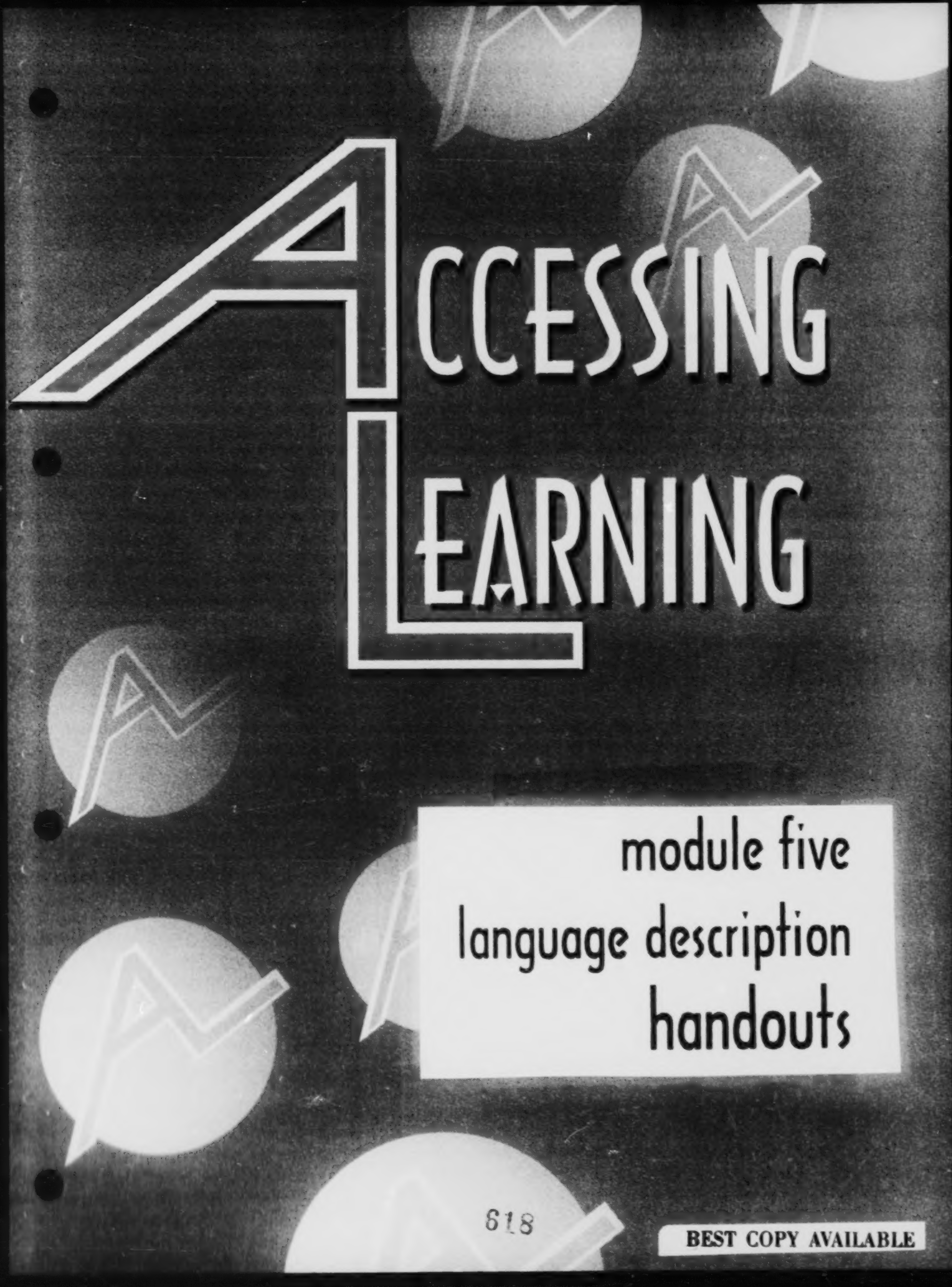
4

Procedures and Protocols

The texts share common language features. These are outlined below and relate to the previous task.

- The person following the instructions is not mentioned (*place the drawing sheet*), or is reported in a general way (*you/one*).
- Sentences are usually stated as commands, beginning with the verb eg, *place, press, use, analyse.*
- The tense is timeless and stated in the present, eg *Place the drawing sheet ...., press the T square.*
- Sometimes linking words or phrases (temporal connectives) are used to show the sequence of steps, eg *first, next, when you have done this, then.* If they are not specifically mentioned in the text they are still implied, eg *Draw four different sections or mechanisms used in a sewing machine* (then) *Identify where they are used in the sewing machine.*
- Successful readers know what the correct order is when they are familiar with this kind of text and they know a deviation from the implied order would result in a failure.
- There is detailed factual information with no attitudinal words, eg *When contour lines are close together (1mm or less on a ruler).*
- There is detailed information on 'how', eg ***slowly*** *rotate the handle.*
- Participants are mostly non-human, eg *contour maps, die, drawing sheets, sewing machines.*
- Reference is often beyond or outside the text.

Technological subjects all show movement from text to activity ie they are subjects fundamentally about doing.



ACCESSING LEARNING

module five
language description
handouts

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TEXT 1: PROCEDURE (DRAWING)

FASTENING DRAWING PAPER TO YOUR DRAWING BOARD

(a) Place the drawing sheet on your drawing board with its smooth side uppermost and a backing sheet behind it.

(b) Press the T square stock firmly against the working edge of the drawing board with your left hand. Move the drawing sheet so that its lower edge rests on the working edge of the T square blade. Both the drawing sheet and the T square are now moved so that the drawing sheet can be located close to the top left hand corner of the drawing board (Figure 1).

(c) Hold the drawing sheet with your left hand and attach the clips with your right hand.

(d) Check with your T square that the drawing sheet has not moved. If there has been some movement pull the appropriate corner of the sheet and check again.

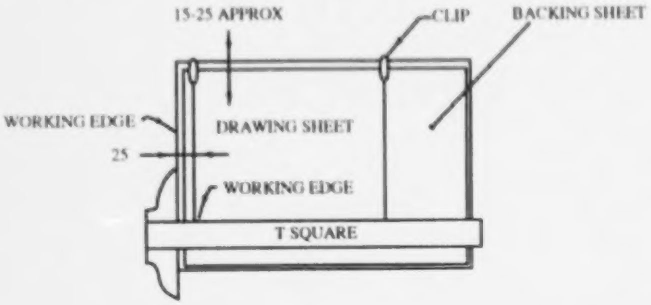

Fig. 1: Positioning sheet and fixing clips

Programmed Technical Drawing Book 2, SI Units,
R.K. Mullins & D.A. Cooper, 1974

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TEXT 2: PROCEDURE (MATERIALS TECHNOLOGY)

The procedure for cutting external threads is as follows:

1. To cut the external thread (commonly called screwing), the cylinder should first be prepared to the size of the thread's major diameter.
2. Scale is removed from metal having a scaled surface.
3. The end of the bar is filed flat and square to the axis of the bar.
4. The end of the bar is slightly tapered for about 5mm from the end to aid the die cutting.
5. The die is adjusted oversize and placed on the rod.
6. The die is used in a similar manner to the tap previously described. Pressing down to start, turn clockwise and reverse the die each quarter turn to break the chip.
7. The thread is cut by this process to the required length and the die removed.
8. The thread so formed is tried against the internal thread with which it is to work.
9. The thread will normally be a tight fit and the die will need to be adjusted to a slightly smaller size and the thread recut.
10. The process of testing and adjusting is continued until the threads mate with one another.

Metalwork Part One, Second Edition,
B.W. Ableson & A.J. Pateman, 1988

TEXT 3: PROTOCOL (DRAWING)

DRAWING HINTS

1. Keep your pencil sharp.
2. Rotate a conical point pencil as you draw a line.
3. Keep your instruments clean and in good working order.
4. Never sharpen a pencil over your drawing board or instruments.
5. Use a backing sheet behind your drawing sheet.
6. The outlines of a drawing, both curved and straight, must be uniform and dark enough to stand out clearly from the paper.
7. The drawing surface be kept clear of instruments that are not in direct use.
8. Place your drawing instruments in an orderly position beside the drawing board when not in use.
9. A piece of paper should be placed under your hand when you are dimensioning or lettering a drawing. (This helps to keep your sheet clean.)
10. All lettering must be made using:
    (a) standard letters
    (b) guide and slope lines.

Programmed Technical Drawing Book 2, SI Units,
R.K. Mullins & D.A. Cooper, 1974

TEXT 4: PROTOCOL (MATERIALS TECHNOLOGY)

USE OF SPANNERS

1. Never strike a spanner with a hammer or use a pipe over the handle to increase leverage.
2. Always pull a spanner, don't push it.
3. Always select a snug-fitting spanner.
4. Don't use adjustable spanners unless a fixed jaw spanner is not available.
5. Repair damaged spanner jaws and discard spanners with spread jaws.
6. When using adjustable spanners, place the fixed jaw behind the nut.
7. Make sure there is sufficient room for the spanner to turn in.

Metalwork Part One, Second Edition,
B.W. Ableson & A.J. Pateman, 1988

TEXT 5: PROCEDURE (TEXTILE & DESIGN)

MECHANISMS IN A SEWING MACHINE

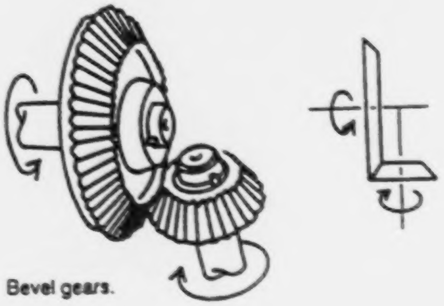
How to do it

Step 1 Look at your machine and find these features:

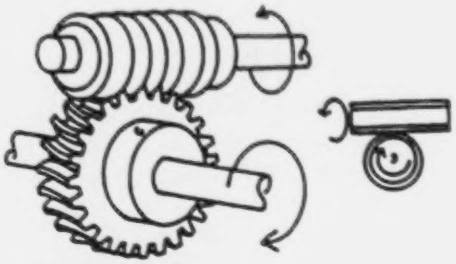
- **a** What type of technology is used in this machine?
- **b** Where does this energy get fed into the machine?

Step 2 On your unlabelled diagram or sketch of your machine, label the type of energy that it uses and where it is fed into the machine.

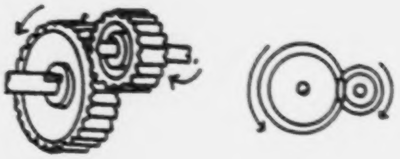
Step 3 Identify the types of mechanical operations used in the domestic sewing machine. In the drawings below you are shown different types of mechanical operations. Each of these situations shows how the parts work as a section (this is called a system).



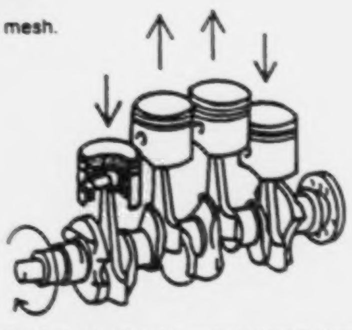
Bevel gears.



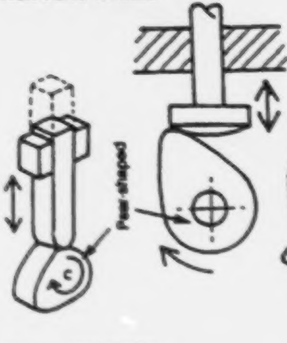
Worm and wheels.



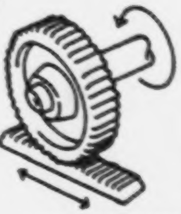
Two gears in mesh.



Crank shaft: changing reciprocating motion into rotary motion



Cams and shafts.



Rack and pinion.

TEXT 5: PROCEDURE (TEXTILE & DESIGN) (CONTINUED)

Step 4 Look inside the machine (with power off) to see how the different parts work together. This is an example of how many parts make up sections or systems and then work together to make a more complicated (complex) section or system work. On the unlabelled diagram of your machine, identify where similar types of operations to those shown above are used to drive the machine.

Step 5 On the unlabelled diagram of your machine, show how these simple mechanical systems work together to make the machine operate.

Step 6 In a sewing machine, there are two main operations which make a stitch form. Identify these two main operations in a sewing machine.

Step 7 Write these in your folio/folder.

Step 8 Identify how these two operations work together.

Step 9 Name the types of mechanisms used in these operations.

Textiles & Design
T. Hynes & E. Kovesdy (1991) McGraw Hill

Note:

Typically Commerce embeds one genre within another producing a macro-genre. In the following example there is a protocol embedded in an argument. Analyse only the protocol marked.

TEXT 6: PROTOCOL/ARGUMENT (COMMERCE)

SUCCESSES AND FAILURES

Starting up a small business is hard enough, as we have already seen, but keeping it going can be even more difficult. Many businesses go through a bad patch and then recover, but this is not just a matter of luck. It is essential for people in business to be adaptable and respond quickly to any changes or trends which are occurring.

Protocol

The most important steps to good business management are to:

1 analyse the company's difficulties and their causes;

2 estimate and keep a close check on 'cash flow' (money coming in and money going out);

3 review costs (and look for cost savings);

4 review your prices (they could be too low or too high);

5 be prepared to make tough decisions and sometimes unpopular decisions.

There is no simple answer to what makes a successful business person. Is it hard work, luck, intelligence, ability or a combination of these factors? Perhaps we think of people in business as being old, conservatively dressed and well educated. In reality however, this is not necessarily the case. Read the newspaper articles and case studies which follow describing how some people started in business and you may be able to draw some conclusions of your own.

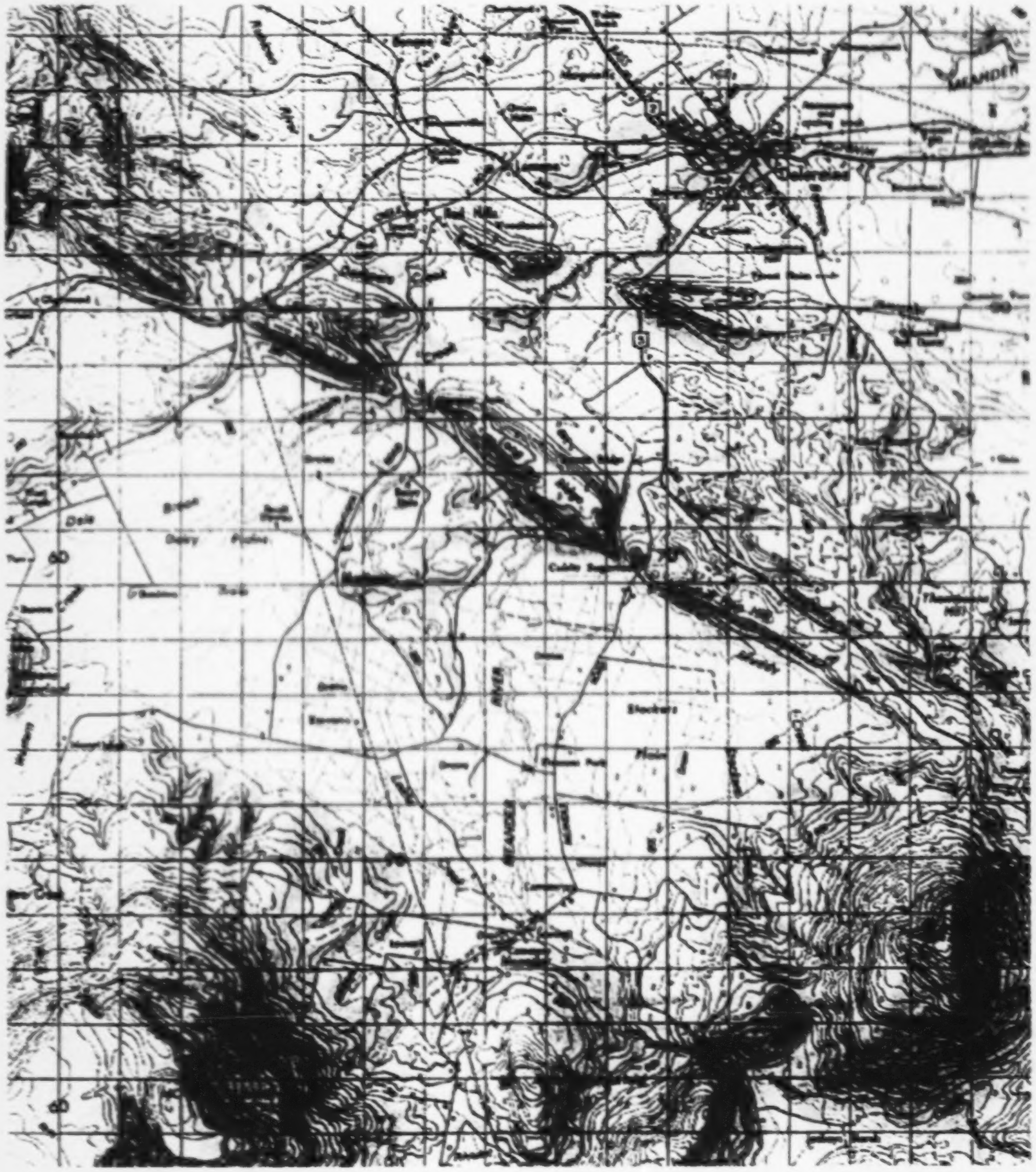
Commerce Two,
B. Parker, T. Clarke, P. Carter, 1988

TEXT 7: PROTOCOL (GEOGRAPHY)

Using contour lines

If you look at a topographic map you will see thin brown lines all over it. These are **contour lines**. They show the elevation (or height) of the land. Numbers are found along contours. They give the elevation above sea level. If a contour line has 40 on it, this means that everywhere along that contour line is 40 metres above sea level.

Fig. 2.15 below shows some contours and other features in an area in Tasmania.



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TEXT 7: PROTOCOL (GEOGRAPHY) (CONTINUED)

Contour lines are a way of showing landforms on a map. Here are some things to remember when looking at contours.

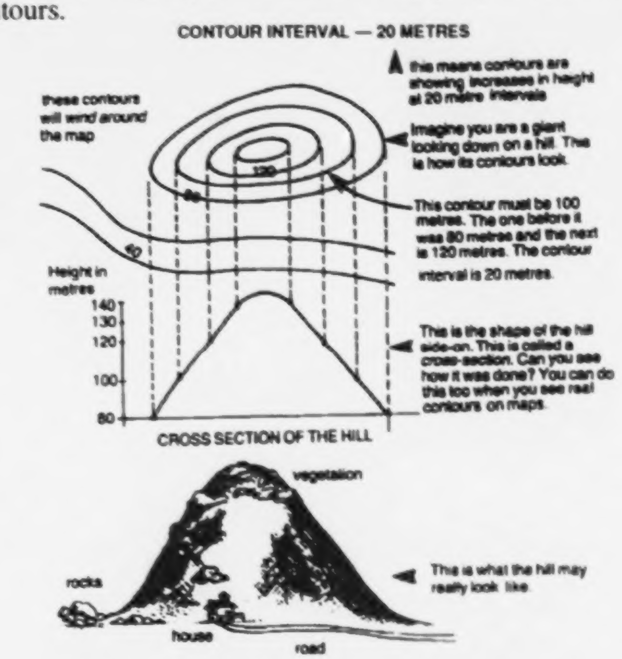
CONTOUR INTERVAL — 20 METRES
this means contours are showing increases in height at 20 metre intervals
these contours will wind around the map
Imagine you are a giant looking down on a hill. This is how its contours look.
120
80
This contour must be 100 metres. The one before it was 80 metres and the next is 120 metres. The contour interval is 20 metres.
Height in metres
140
130
120
100
80
This is the shape of the hill side-on. This is called a cross-section. Can you see how it was done? You can do this too when you see real contours on maps.
CROSS SECTION OF THE HILL
vegetation
This is what the hill may really look like.
rocks
house
road

Fig. 2.16 Some features of contours.

1. When contour lines are close together (1mm or less on a ruler) there are steep slopes (see Fig. 2.17).
2. When contour lines are far apart the land is flatter or has gentle slopes.
3. Hills appear as roughly circular contours getting smaller with increases in height (see Fig. 2.17a).
4. Ridges 'stretch' the contours out. Some good examples like this are shown on the map, Fig. 2.15. A long ridge appears at area reference 6896. Find this and look at its contour pattern. Fig. 2.17c shows some features of ridges.
5. Plateaus appear as flat-topped mountains. The contours are close together until the top is reached. Because the top is flat there are no contours on top of it (see Fig. 2.17d).
6. Valley contours are closer together on the sides and wider apart on the valley floor where it is flatter. Fig 2.17b shows this.

Questions

Examine the map, Fig 2.15.

1. (a) What landforms shown by the contours can you see?
   (b) Draw and name these locations.
2. Locate the railway and road passing between 'Gardeners Ridge' and 'Needles Ridge'. Give reasons why they were built here.
3. Where the contours are close together there is no settlement. Why?
4. What is the name of the landform where settlement and transport routes are located.
5. Compare the contours on this map Fig 2.17 with those on the Mildura map (Fig. 2.11). What differences can you find?

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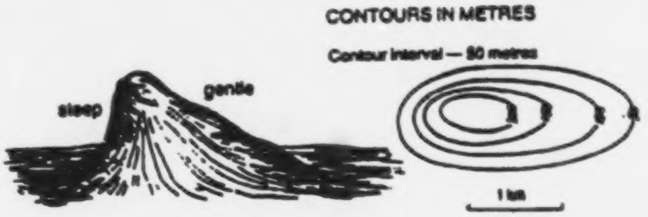
TEXT 7: PROTOCOL (GEOGRAPHY) (CONTINUED)

a

A HILL WITH GENTLE AND STEEP SLOPES

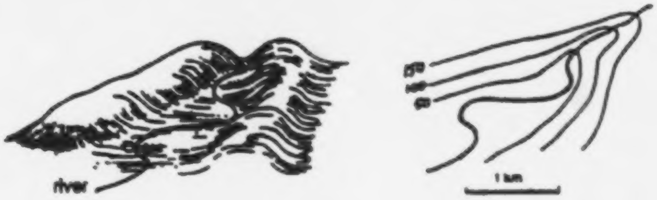
Contours are close together on steep slopes, wider apart on gentle slopes.


CONTOURS IN METRES
Contour interval — 50 metres
steep
gentle
1 km

b

A VALLEY

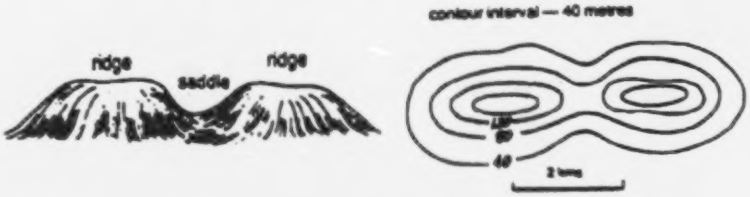
Contours form a V at the end of the valley. Contours are closer on the sides of the valley.



c

RIDGES AND A SADDLE

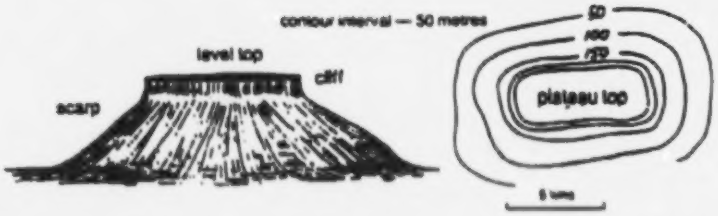
A very common landform in hills and mountains


contour interval — 40 metres
ridge
saddle
ridge
40
2 kms

d

A PLATEAU (OR MESA)

Contours go up to the plateau which has no contours on it. The cliff has very close contours.


contour interval — 50 metres
level top
cliff
scarp
50
100
150
plateau top

Introducing Geography,
S. Weingarth 1986

TEXT 1A: PROCEDURE (DRAWING) STAGES

Goal

FASTENING DRAWING PAPER TO YOUR DRAWING BOARD

Method

(a) Place the drawing sheet on your drawing board with its smooth side uppermost and a backing sheet behind it.

(b) Press the T square stock firmly against the working edge of the drawing board with your left hand. Move the drawing sheet so that its lower edge rests on the working edge of the T square blade. Both the drawing sheet and the T square are now moved so that the drawing sheet can be located close to the top left hand corner of the drawing board.

(c) Hold the drawing sheet with your left hand and attach the clips with your right hand.

(d) Check with your T square that the drawing sheet has not moved. If there has been some movement pull the appropriate corner of the sheet and check again.

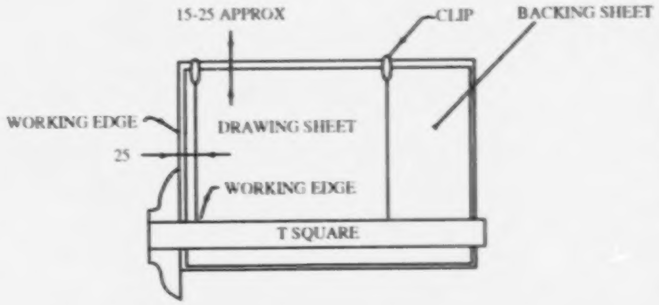


Fig. 4.1 Positioning sheet and fixing clips

Programmed Technical Drawing Book 2, SI Units,
R.K. Mullins & D.A. Cooper, 1974

TEXT 2A: PROCEDURE (MATERIALS TECHNOLOGY) STAGES

Goal

The procedure for cutting external threads is as follows:

Method

1. To cut the external thread (commonly called screwing), the cylinder should first be prepared to the size of the thread's major diameter.
2. Scale is removed from metal having a scaled surface.
3. The end of the bar is filed flat and square to the axis of the bar.
4. The end of the bar is slightly tapered for about 5mm from the end to aid the die cutting.
5. The die is adjusted oversize and placed on the rod.
6. The die is used in a similar manner to the tap previously described. Pressing down to start, turn clockwise and reverse the die each quarter turn to break the chip.
7. The thread is cut by this process to the required length and the die removed.
8. The thread so formed is tried against the internal thread with which it is to work.
9. The thread will normally be a tight fit and the die will need to be adjusted to a slightly smaller size and the thread recut.
10. The process of testing and adjusting is continued until the threads mate with one another.

Metalwork Part One, Second Edition,
B.W. Ableson & A.J. Pateman, 1988

TEXT 3A: PROTOCOL (DRAWING) STAGES

Goal	DRAWING HINTS
General Conditions	1. Keep your pencil sharp. 2. Rotate a conical point pencil as you draw a line. 3. Keep your instruments clean and in good working order. 4. Never sharpen a pencil over your drawing board or instruments. 5. Use a backing sheet behind your drawing sheet. 6. The outlines of a drawing, both curved and straight, must be uniform and dark enough to stand out clearly from the paper. 7. The drawing surface be kept clear of instruments that are not in direct use. 8. Place your drawing instruments in an orderly position beside the drawing board when not in use. 9. A piece of paper should be placed under your hand when you are dimensioning or lettering a drawing. (This helps to keep your sheet clean.) 10. All lettering must be made using: (a) standard letters (b) guide and slope lines.

Programmed Technical Drawing Book 2, SI Units,
R.K. Mullins & D.A. Cooper, 1974

TEXT 4A: PROTOCOL (MATERIALS TECHNOLOGY) STAGES

Goal	USE OF SPANNERS
General Conditions	1. Never strike a spanner with a hammer or use a pipe over the handle to increase leverage. 2. Always pull a spanner, don't push it. 3. Always select a snug-fitting spanner. 4. Don't use adjustable spanners unless a fixed jaw spanner is not available. 5. Repair damaged spanner jaws and discard spanners with spread jaws. 6. When using adjustable spanners, place the fixed jaw behind the nut. 7. Make sure there is sufficient room for the spanner to turn in.

Metalwork Part One, Second Edition,
B.W. Ableson & A.J. Pateman, 1988

TEXT 5A: PROCEDURE (TEXTILE & DESIGN) STAGES

Goal

MECHANISMS IN A SEWING MACHINE
How to do it

Method

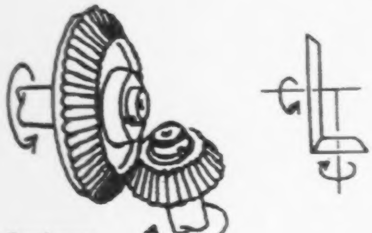
Step 1 Look at your machine and find these features:

a. What type of technology is used in this machine?

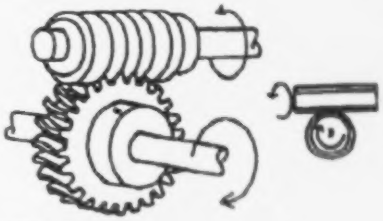
b. Where does this energy get fed into the machine?

Step 2 On your unlabelled diagram or sketch of your machine, label the type of energy that it uses and where it is fed into the machine.

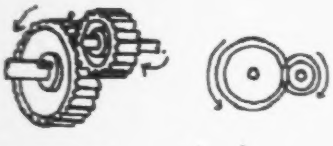
Step 3 Identify the types of mechanical operations used in the domestic sewing machine. In the drawings below you are shown different types of mechanical operations. Each of these situations shows how the parts work as a section (this is called a system).



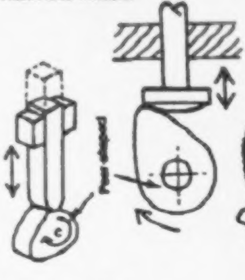
Bevel gears.



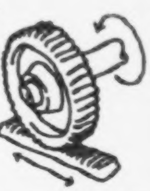
Worm and wheels.



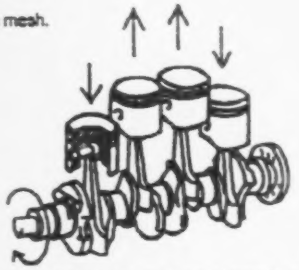
Two gears in mesh.



Cams and shafts.



Rack and pinion.



Crank shaft: changing reciprocating motion into rotary motion.

TEXT 5A: PROCEDURE (TEXTILE & DESIGN) STAGES continued

	Step 4	Look inside the machine (with power off) to see how the different parts work together. This is an example of how many parts make up sections or systems and then work together to make a more complicated (complex) section or system work. On the unlabelled diagram of your machine, identify where similar types of operations to those shown above are used to drive the machine.
Method Cont.	Step 5	On the unlabelled diagram of your machine, show how these simple mechanical systems work together to make the machine operate.
	Step 6	In a sewing machine, there are two main operations which make a stitch form. Identify these two main operations in a sewing machine.
	Step 7	Write these in your folio/folder.
	Step 8	Identify how these two operations work together.
	Step 9	Name the types of mechanisms used in these operations.

Textiles & Design,
T. Hynes & E. Kovesdy, 1991

TEXT 6A: PROTOCOL/ARGUMENT (COMMERCE) STAGES

SUCCESSES AND FAILURES

Argument

Starting up a small business is hard enough, as we have already seen, but keeping it going can be even more difficult. Many businesses go through a bad patch and then recover, but this is not just a matter of luck. It is essential for people in business to be adaptable and respond quickly to any changes or trends which are occurring.

Protocol

Goal

The most important steps to good business management are to:

General Conditions

1 analyse the company's difficulties and their causes;

2 estimate and keep a close check on 'cash flow' (money coming in and money going out);

3 review costs (and look for cost savings);

4 review your prices (they could be too low or too high);

5 be prepared to make tough decisions and sometimes unpopular decisions

Argument

There is no simple answer to what makes a successful business person. Is it hard work, luck, intelligence, ability or a combination of these factors? Perhaps we think of people in business as being old, conservatively dressed and well educated. In reality however, this is not necessarily the case. Read the newspaper articles and case studies which follow describing how some people started in business and you may be able to draw some conclusions of your own.

Commerce Two,
B. Parker, T. Clarke, P. Carter, 1988

TEXT 7A: PROTOCOL (GEOGRAPHY) STAGES

Goal

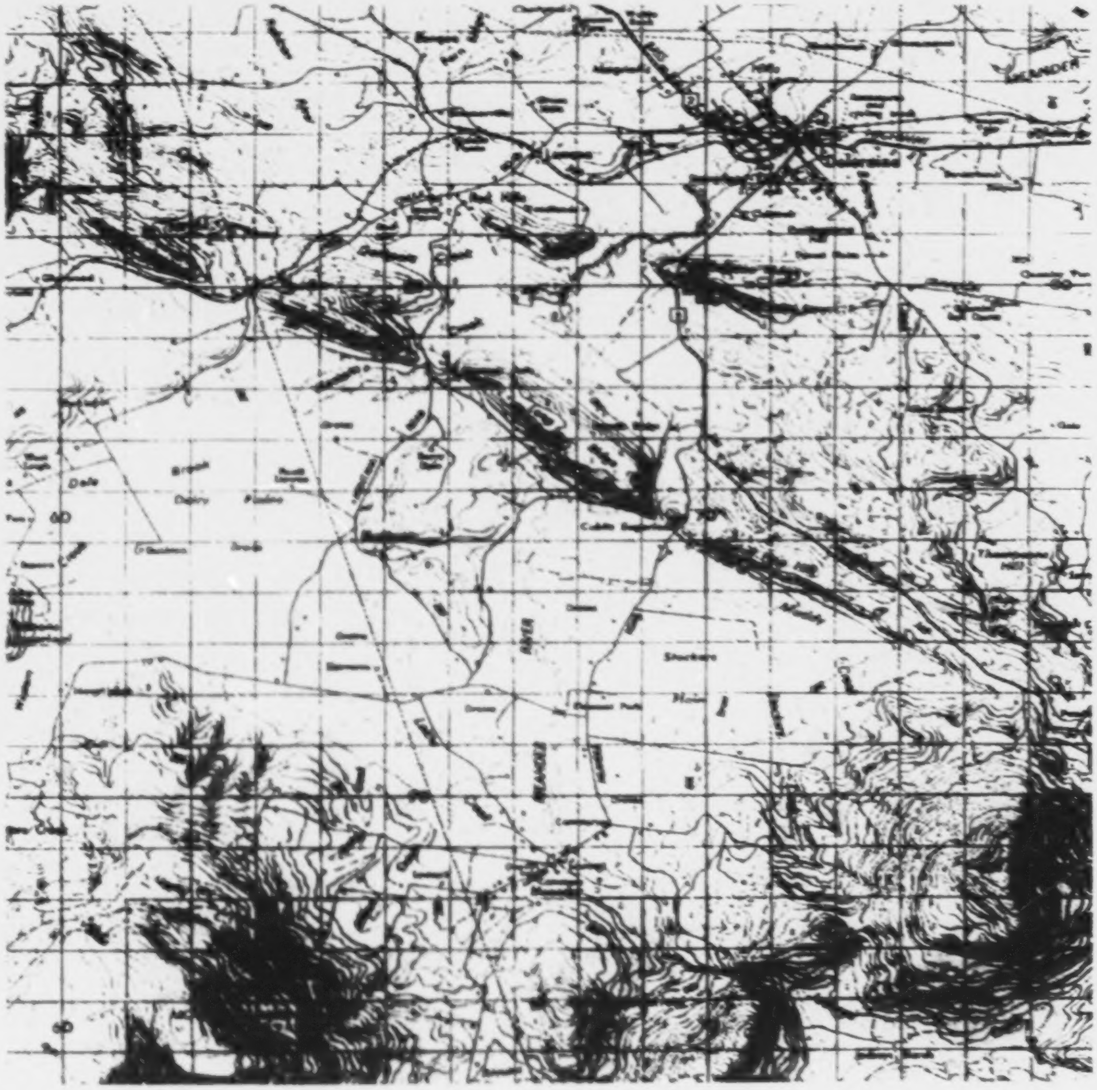
Using contour lines

Protocol

If you look at a topographic map you will see thin brown lines all over it. These are **contour lines**. They show the elevation (or height) of the land. Numbers are found along contours. They give the elevation above sea level. If a contour line has 40 on it, this means that everywhere along that contour line is 40 metres above sea level.

Fig. 2.15 below shows some contours and other features in an area in Tasmania.

Report



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TEXT 7A: PROTOCOL (GEOGRAPHY) STAGES cont.

Protocol

Goal

Contour lines are a way of showing landforms on a map. Here are some things to remember when looking at contours.

General Conditions

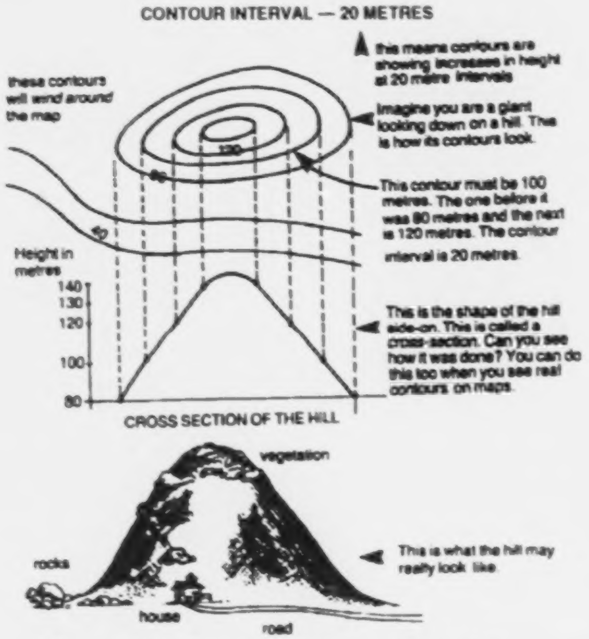
CONTOUR INTERVAL — 20 METRES
this means contours are showing increases in height at 20 metre intervals
these contours will wind around the map
Imagine you are a giant looking down on a hill. This is how its contours look.
120
80
60
This contour must be 100 metres. The one before it was 80 metres and the next is 120 metres. The contour interval is 20 metres.
Height in metres
140
130
120
100
80
This is the shape of the hill side-on. This is called a cross-section. Can you see how it was done? You can do this too when you see real contours on maps.
CROSS SECTION OF THE HILL
vegetation
rocks
house
road
This is what the hill may really look like.

Fig. 2.16 Some features of contours.

1 When contour lines are close together (1mm or less on a ruler) there are steep slopes (see Fig. 2.17).

2 When contour lines are far apart the land is flatter or has gentle slopes.

3 Hills appear as roughly circular contours getting smaller with increases in height (see Fig. 2.17a).

4 Ridges 'stretch' the contours out. Some good examples like this are shown on the map, Fig. 2.15. A long ridge appears at area reference 6896. Find this and look at its contour pattern. Fig. 2.17c shows some features of ridges.

5 Plateaus appear as flat-topped mountains. The contours are close together until the top is reached. Because the top is flat there are no contours on top of it (see Fig. 2.17d).

6 Valley contours are closer together on the sides and wider apart on the valley floor where it is splatter. Fig 2.17b shows this.

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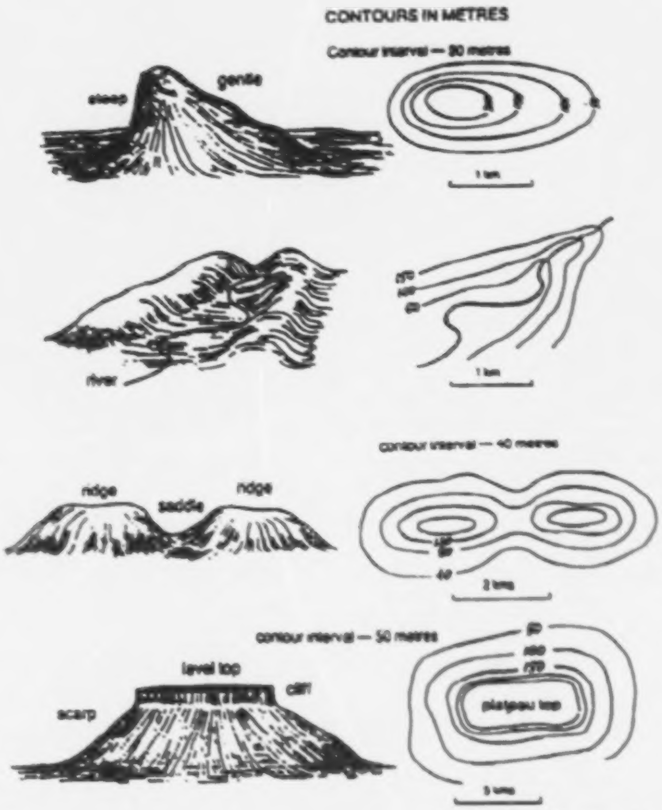
TEXT 7A: PROTOCOL (GEOGRAPHY) STAGES cont.

Questions
Examine the map, Fig. 2.15.

1. (a) What landforms shown by the contours can you see?
   (b) Draw and name these locations.
2. Locate the railway and road passing between 'Gardeners Ridge' and 'Needles Ridge'. Give reasons why they were built here.
3. Where the contours are close together there is no settlement. Why?
4. What is the name of the landform where settlement and transport routes are located.
5. Compare the contours on this map (Fig 2.17) with those on the Mildura map (Fig. 2.11). What differences can you find?


CONTOURS IN METRES
Contour interval — 20 metres
steep
gentle
1 km
river
1 km
contour interval — 40 metres
ridge
saddle
ridge
40
2 kms
contour interval — 50 metres
level top
cliff
scarp
plateau top
5 kms

a
A HILL WITH GENTLE AND STEEP SLOPES
Contours are close together on steep slopes, wider apart on gentle slopes.

b
A VALLEY
Contours form a V at the end of the valley. Contours are closer on the sides of the valley.

c
RIDGES AND A SADDLE
A very common landform in hills and mountains

d
A PLATEAU (OR MESA)
Contours go up to the plateau which has no contours on it. The cliff has very close contours.

Introducing Geography,
S. Weingarth, 1986

Visuals accompanying the text

The stages of a procedure are:

Goal ^ (Materials) ^ Method

The stages of a protocol are:

Goal ^ General Conditions

Language features of procedures and protocols

The texts share common language features. These are outlined below and relate to the question above.

- The person following the instructions is not mentioned eg *place the drawing sheet*, or is reported in a general way eg *you/one*.
- Sentences are usually stated as commands beginning with the verb eg *place, press, use, analyse*.
- The tense is timeless and stated in the present eg *place the drawing sheet ..., press the T square*.
- Sometimes linking words or phrases (temporal connectives) are used to show the sequence of steps, eg *first, next, when you have done this, then*. If they are not specifically mentioned in the text they are still implied, eg *draw four different sections or mechanisms used in a sewing machine*. (then) *Identify where they are used in the sewing machine*.
- Successful readers know what the correct order is and they know a deviation from the implied order would result in a failure.
- There is detailed factual information with no attitudinal words eg *when contour lines are close together (1mm or less on a ruler)*.
- There is detailed information on how eg ***slowly*** *rotate the handle and when* ***after*** *the ...*
- Participants are mostly non-human eg *contour maps, die, drawing sheets, sewing machines*.
- Reference is often beyond or outside the text.

Technological subjects all show movement from text to activity ie they are subjects fundamentally about doing.

TASK 4

> Refer to the Glossary of language features in Module Two for an explanation of Theme.
>
> Look at the text in your subject area and underline the Themes.

Commentary

The Theme of a sentence is what comes first in the sentence. It is a significant feature of English as the Theme of the sentence is what you choose to make the starting point of your message to the reader. By changing the Theme of a sentence you can significantly change the meaning of the sentence.

Consider these two sentences from Text 2, a procedure from Materials Technology:

1. *The process of testing and adjusting* is continued until the threads mate with one another.
2. *The threads* mate with one another after the process of testing and adjusting is completed.

In the first sentence the Theme is the noun group the *process of testing and adjusting* and by placing this in the first position of the sentence, the focus is on the process. In the second sentence by making the Theme *the threads*, it places the focus on *the threads*, the thing, rather than the process.

The Themes in Text 1 are:

1. Place
2. Press
3. Hold
4. Check

The Themes in Text 2 are:

1. To cut the external thread (commonly called screwing)
2. Scale
3. The end of the bar
4. The end of the bar
5. The die
6. The die
7. The thread
8. The thread
9. The thread
10. The process of testing and adjusting.

6·19

The Themes in Text 5 are::

Step 1: Look
Step 2: On your unlabelled diagram or sketch of your machine.
Step 3: Identify
Step 4: Look
Step 5: On the unlabelled diagram of your machine
Step 6: In a sewing machine
Step 7: Write
Step 8: Identify
Step 9: Name

Theme in Texts 3,4, 6 and 7 Protocol Texts

The Themes in Text 3 are:

1. Keep
2. Rotate
3. Keep
4. Never sharpen
5. Use
6. The outlines of a drawing, both curved and straight
7. The drawing surface
8. Place
9. A piece of paper
10. All lettering

The Themes in Text 4 are:

1. Never strike
2. Always pull
3. Always select
4. Don't use
5. Repair
6. When using adjustable spanners
7. Make sure there is......

The Themes in Text 6 are:

1. Analyse
2. Estimate and keep
3. Review
4. Review
5. Be prepared to make

The Themes in Text 7 are:

1. When contour lines
2. When contour lines
3. Hills
4. Ridges
5. Plateaus
6. Undulating land
7. Valley contours

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TASK 5

Look at the text in your subject and identify the temporal connectives.

Refer to the Glossary of language features in Module Two for an explanation of temporal connectives.

ACCESSING LEARNING

module five
teaching/learning activity
overhead transparencies

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Constructing a cloze

In cloze passages, words may be deleted on the basis of:

Fixed ratio	— words are deleted on a regular basis throughout the text, eg every ninth word. The more often words are omitted, the more difficult the task.
Variable ratio	— words are deleted according to pre-determined criteria, eg content words, grammatical words.
Groups of words	— phrases or sentences are deleted, requiring students to focus on the overall pattern and meaning of the text to replace them.

The decision to omit certain words should be based on the purpose for doing the cloze:

- revising or testing content knowledge;
- highlighting and practising grammatical features such as:

  reference words;
  connectives;
  nominalisation;

- assessing student ability to read about a new topic. No matter what the primary purpose, students will be reinforcing their knowledge of content by re-reading a cloze passage several times as they complete it.

2

In report writing nominalisation allows the writer to create a mature-sounding text. (Refer to the Glossary of Language Features for an explanation of nominalisation.) By clozing out nominalisations in a text the teacher can explore with the students how the process of nominalisation can help them make their writing more **written-like**, eg

'Man evolved. This process is called "**evolution**". The evolutionary process is...'

'Wheat is refined. The refining of wheat... Wheat **refinement**...'

The bold words could be clozed out.

TASK 3

Go back to the cloze texts. Try completing a selection of them. As you do, list the strategies you were conscious of using to identify the appropriate words.

Commentary

Some of the strategies and skills you might have identified are:

- Skimming through the passage to get the gist or overall meaning of the passage before you began.
- Scanning through the passage to see if the missing word had been repeated elsewhere.
- Referring backwards and forwards in the text at a sentence and paragraph level.
- Selecting the most appropriate word for each space.
- Identifying the correct form of the word for each space.

4

Points to Remember

- Have a clear purpose in mind and design the cloze accordingly.
- Provide a meaningful context for the cloze.
- At least the first and last sentences should be left intact to provide a context for the reader.
- Decide whether the students need the support of a list of the omitted words below the text.
- Take the opportunity to provide different clozes to groups of students who may have different needs. Clozes are an efficient way to meet the individual needs of students.
- Don't leave out all the difficult words. Leaving in some of the difficulties supports student understanding.

ACCESSING LEARNING

module five
teaching/learning activity handouts

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Constructing a cloze

In cloze passages, words may be deleted on the basis of:

Fixed ratio — words are deleted on a regular basis throughout the text, eg every ninth word. The more often words are omitted, the more difficult the task.

Variable ratio — words are deleted according to pre-determined criteria, eg content words, grammatical words.

Groups of words — phrases or sentences are deleted, requiring students to focus on the overall pattern and meaning of the text to replace them.

The decision to omit certain words should be based on the purpose for doing the cloze:

- revising or testing; testing content knowledge;
- highlighting and practising grammatical features, such as:

  reference words;
  connectives;
  nominalisation;

- assessing student ability to read about a new topic.

  No matter what the primary purpose, students will be reinforcing their knowledge of content by re-reading a cloze passage several times as they complete it.

TASK 2

Examine the cloze passages (Texts 1 to 5). What different purposes could each of them serve?

TEXT 1

Instructions: Complete the passage below using the most appropriate word.

Expenses in owning a car
Registration and third party insurance

Every car driven on a public road must be registered with the appropriate State Government department. The .... must also be covered by third party insurance.

Car registration must be paid every year. The cost of .... depends on the weight of the vehicle and whether it is usually .... in the city or in the country. Cars used for business purposes are .... expensive to register than cars .... for personal use.

Before a car can be registered, it must be inspected. A mechanic at an authorised .... station must check that the vehicle is .... If the car passes ...., the owner is given a certificate of roadworthiness, called a pink slip. The owner must then obtain a green slip. The pink slip is given, with the registration papers, green slip and the .... to the motor registry. In exchange, the owner gets a registration .... The .... of the sticker shows the year in which it is registered and the .... on the sticker shows to which month in that year it is registered. It is a .... offence to drive an .... vehicle.

The World of Commerce, Book Three, Second Edition,
E.D. Shade & R. C. Gyles, 1988

TEXT 2

This worksheet provides definitions for a Geography unit on waste management. Students would be asked to complete the sheet which then provides them with a glossary.

Instructions: Complete the passage below using the most appropriate word.

1. Biodegradable	is a term	given to a substance which can be broken down by the natural process of decomposition eg food and paper.
2. Clean fill		consisting of clay, soil, crushed rock, and rubble-like inert mineral filling, up to a maximum of 200mm in size.
3.	is a method	of recycling any organic materials (materials that are or once were alive).
4. Decomposition	is a process	
5.	is waste material	generated by industrial or manufacturing processes.
6. Organic Waste	is waste	
7. Recycling		involving the collection and processing of a waste product for use as a raw material in the manufacture of the same product or a similar one.
8.	is the entire process	of generation, storage, collection, transportation treatment and disposal of waste and resource recovery.

TEXT 3

The cloze below was developed from a technological studies textbook and deals with the procedure for making a bag.

Instructions: Complete the cloze passage below using the words provided.

press
turn down
machine
apply
place
machine
machine
neaten
allow

1. Pin the pattern on the fabric and cut the fabric to the size required on the pattern.

2. .... design in selected position .... painted designs to dry .... with hot iron to set dye.

3. .... right sides of bag pieces together and pin. .... sides and bottom of bag. Neaten edges with zigzag.

4. .... hem around top opening to make casing for drawstring, eg turn under 0.5cm, then 2 cm hem. Pin.

5. .... around the top edge 0.3 cm from the folded edge. .... around the hem edge, leaving an opening to thread drawstring through.

TEXT 4

This cloze was developed from a Water Board booklet. It presents an account of the importance of water conservation.

Instructions: Complete the cloze passage below using the words provided.

However
Finally, one of the most important reasons
also
Even though
Therefore
One reason for this is that
Another reason is that
This

Why is it important to save water?

Water plays a big part in our lives. We need water to drink, cook, wash our clothes, keep clean and perhaps water the garden. ...., a lot of water is wasted in all these areas. We need to be more aware of how important it is to save water wherever we can.

.... a severe strain is placed on Sydney's water resources by the city's increasing population and the possibility of a longer term drought. .... water is a renewable resource, it is not infinite. .... we need to be more conscious of conserving the water we have.

.... increased water usage means greater pollution for the environment. By using less water we can reduce the load on our sewage treatment plants. .... will help to reduce sewer overflows.

Pollution is .... reduced by not wasting water on our gardens. Water running off our gardens and lawns carry fertilizers, chemicals, grease, litter, animal dropping etc. into our local bush land, into stormwater drains and water ways and ultimately to the ocean.

.... for water conservation is the environmental benefits this brings. By reducing our water consumption we can defer the building of a new dam, which can have large environmental impacts. Valuable land is flooded and there are major changes to the environment upstream and downstream. Also by reducing the demand we reduce the need to simplify the existing supply network with larger pipes.

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TEXT 5

Instructions: Complete the passage below using the most appropriate word.

Account for how pollutants effect our waterways

Three significant pollutants affecting our waterways are heavy metals, nutrients and chemicals.

Firstly, there are heavy metals such as .... , ... , ... and .... These accumulate in the .... and threaten the health of animals and humans. For example, ... from a factory are dumped into .... Tiny marine organisms may take in some dissolved lead; a school of small fish will each have a mouthful of the organism; a few larger fish will eat several small fish and finally a human being will eat fish and absorb concentrated lead.

Secondly, nutrients such as nitrates and phosphates washed into the waterways from such things as .... and .... encourage the growth of weeds and algae. This blocks waterways and inhibits growth of natural plants.

Chemicals from industrial, rural and commercial sites are another pollutant often emptied into our waterways. These chemicals, for example organochlorin, ... and .... are toxic for plants and animals. They can kill and deform.

Heavy metals, nutrients and chemicals severely impair our environment by polluting our waterways.

TEXT 1 RESOURCE SHEET

Expenses in owning a car
Registration and third party insurance

Every car driven on a public road must be registered with the appropriate State Government department. The vehicle must also be covered by third party insurance.

Car registration fees must be paid every year. The cost of registration depends on the weight of the vehicle and whether it is usually garaged in the city or in the country. Cars used for business purposes are more expensive to register than cars registered for personal use.

Before a car can be registered, it must be inspected. A mechanic at an authorised service station must check that the vehicle is roadworthy. If the car passes inspection, the owner is given a certificate of roadworthiness, called a pink slip. The owner must then obtain a green slip. The pink slip is given, with the registration papers, green slip and the fee to the motor registry. In exchange, the owner gets a registration sticker. The colour of the sticker shows the year in which it is registered and the number on the sticker shows to which month in that year it is registered. It is a criminal offence to drive an unregistered vehicle.

The World of Commerce, Book Three, Second Edition,
E.D. Shade & R. C. Gyles, 1988

Text 2 Resource Sheet

1. Biodegradable	is a term	given to a substance which can be broken down by the natural process of decomposition eg food and paper.
2. Clean fill	is material	consisting of clay, soil, crushed rock, and rubble-like inert mineral filling, up to a maximum of 200mm in size.
3. Composting	is a method	of recycling any organic materials (materials that are or once were alive).
4. Decomposition	is a process	whereby dead material is broken down and nutrients are put back into the environment.
5. Industrial Waste	is waste material	generated by industrial or manufacturing processes.
6. Organic Waste	is waste	derived from animal or plant materials.
7. Recycling	is a process	involving the collection and processing of a waste product for use as a raw material in the manufacture of the same product or a similar one.
8. Waste Management	is the entire process	of generation, storage, collection, transportation, treatment and disposal of waste and resource recovery.

Text 3 Resource Sheet

1. Pin the pattern on the fabric and cut the fabric to the size required on the pattern.
2. Apply design in selected position.

   Allow painted designs to dry. Press with hot iron to set dye.
3. Place right sides of bag pieces together and pin. Machine sides and bottom of bag. Neaten edges with zigzag.
4. Turn down hem around top opening to make casing for drawstring, eg turn under 0.5cm, then 2 cms hem. Pin.
5. Machine around the top edge 0.3 cm from the folded edge. Machine around the hem edge, leaving an opening to thread drawstring through.

Text 4 Resource Sheet

Why is it important to save water?

Water plays a big part in our lives. We need water to drink, cook, wash our clothes, keep clean and perhaps water the garden. However, a lot of water is wasted in all these areas. We need to be more aware of how important it is to save water wherever we can.

One reason for this is that a severe strain is placed on Sydney's water resources by the city's increasing population and the possibility of a longer term drought. Even though water is a renewable resource, it is not infinite. Therefore we need to be more conscious of conserving the water we have.

Another reason is that increased water usage means greater pollution for the environment. By using less water we can reduce the load on our sewage treatment plants. This will help to reduce sewer overflows.

Pollution is also reduced by not wasting water on our gardens. Water running off our gardens and lawns carry fertilizers, chemicals, grease, litter, animal dropping etc. into our local bush land, into stormwater drains and water ways and ultimately to the ocean.

Finally, one of the most important reasons for water conservation is the environmental benefits this brings. By reducing our water consumption we can defer the building of a new dam, which can have large environmental impacts. Valuable land is flooded and there are major changes to the environment upstream and downstream. Also by reducing the demand we reduce the need to simplify the existing supply network with larger pipes.

Text 5 Resource Sheet

Account for how pollutants effect our waterways

Three significant pollutants affecting our waterways are heavy metals, nutrients and chemicals.

Firstly, there are heavy metals such as cooper, zinc, lead and arsenic. These accumulate in the food chain and threaten the health of animals and humans. For example, heavy metals from a factory are dumped into waterways. Tiny marine organisms may take in some dissolved lead; a school of small fish will each have a mouthful of the organism; a few larger fish will eat several small fish and finally a human being will eat fish and absorb concentrated lead.

Secondly, nutrients such as nitrates and phosphates washed into the waterways from such things as pesticide spraying and crop fertilizers encourage the growth of weeds and algae. This blocks waterways and inhibits growth of natural plants.

Chemicals from industrial, rural and commercial sites are another pollutant often emptied into our waterways. These chemicals, for example organochlorin, DDT and pesticides are toxic for plants and animals. They can kill and deform.

Heavy metals, nutrients and chemicals severely impair our environment by polluting our waterways.

ACCESSING LEARNING

module six

LANGUAGE AND LITERACY DEVELOPMENT IN KEY LEARNING AREAS

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ACCESSING LEARNING

module six

language description

overhead transparencies

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TASK 1

Text 1 is an explanation and Texts 2-4 are account texts. Read the one(s) for your subject and consider the following:

What is the purpose of this text? Who would read it and why?

How would you divide the text into stages?

Name each stage according to its purpose.

The generic structure of explanation and account

Phenomenon ^ Explanation Sequence/Factors ^ (Result)

In summary, the two elements Phenomenon and Explanation are obligatory stages which means they are essential if the Goal of the genre is to be achieved. Some texts also include an optional Result stage.

TASK 3

Look at the Text for your subject area and consider the following questions:

1. How is the Explanation built up?

2. Are the human participants individualised or generalised?

3. What types of verbs — action or relational — are used? What does this mean?

Refer to the **Glossary of Language Features** for an explanation of Given/New and Verbs.

4

IMPLICATION SEQUENCE FOR TASK 3

GIVEN		NEW
When water evaporates	→	it changes into an invisible gas called water vapour.
	↙	
When air contains a lot of water vapour	→	we say the humidity is high.

and in Text 4:

GIVEN		NEW
The Romans	→	had built almost 1,000 miles of roads.
	↙	
These roads	→	were mainly for the army.
	↙	
The Roman legions	→	needed to be able to march quickly to areas of trouble.

Nominalisation is also a typical feature of explanation. In nominalisation, a process is turned into a thing, that is, a verb becomes a noun.

Text 1 condense → condensation
Text 2: fail → failure
Text 3: bushrangers → bushranging
Text 4: invade → invasion

Noun groups in Text 2

- *an inadequate business recording and accounting system* can be unpacked as 'businesses record information and use accounting systems which are inadequate'.
- *lack of managerial experience...*
- *proper accounting records...*

EXPLANATIONS AND ACCOUNTS

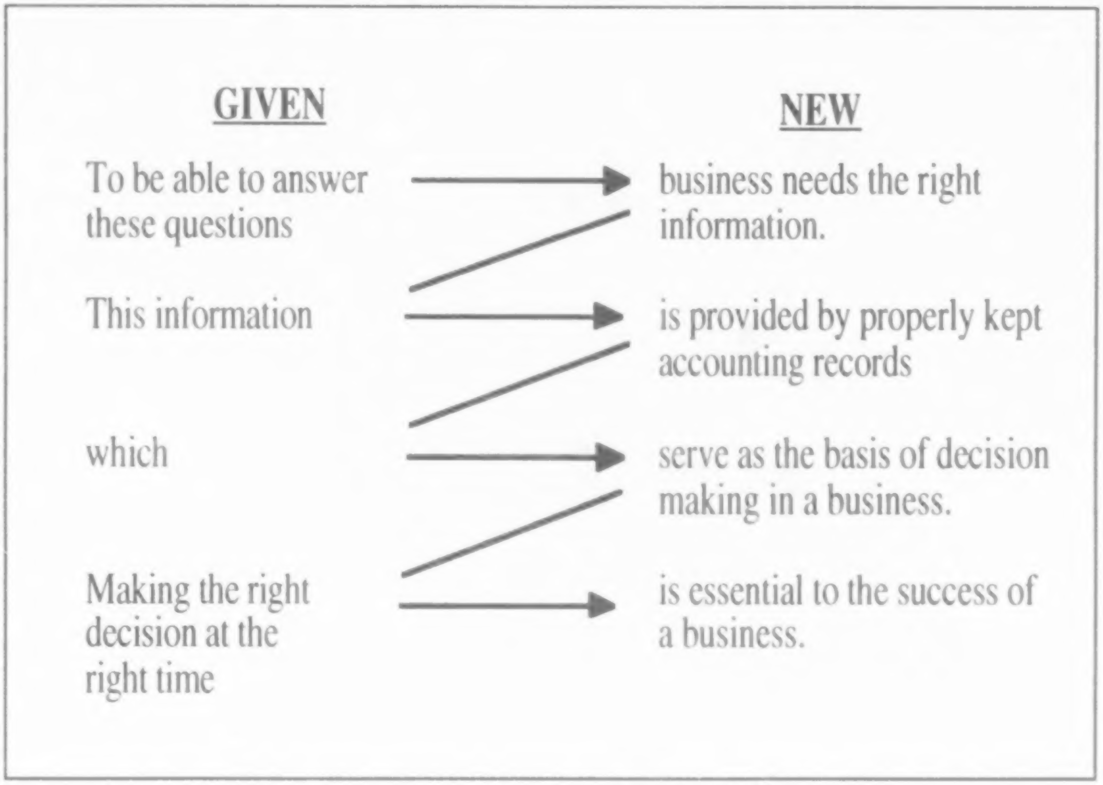
Explanation and account texts share these common language features:

- use of noun groups, which enable concepts and explanations to be built up around nouns;
- nominalisation, which creates a thing from a process or attribute;
- connectives, mainly about time, to show sequence of events, or to show cause and effect relationships;
- use of technical language;
- generalised participants;
- action verbs to build up events or offer an explanation and relational verbs to show the relationship between one part of the process and another;
- past tense for specific events and things, eg *Bushranging died out, The Romans had built*;
- the timeless present tense, eg *contains, happens*, to indicate that this holds over time, and not just on specific occasion;
- the passive is used frequently because in natural phenomena things are acted upon, eg *is condensed, is provided by*.

TASK 4

In Text 2, the Commerce text, look at the paragraph beginning: *To be able......*

Work out the implication sequence using your knowledge of Given/New as in the previous section.



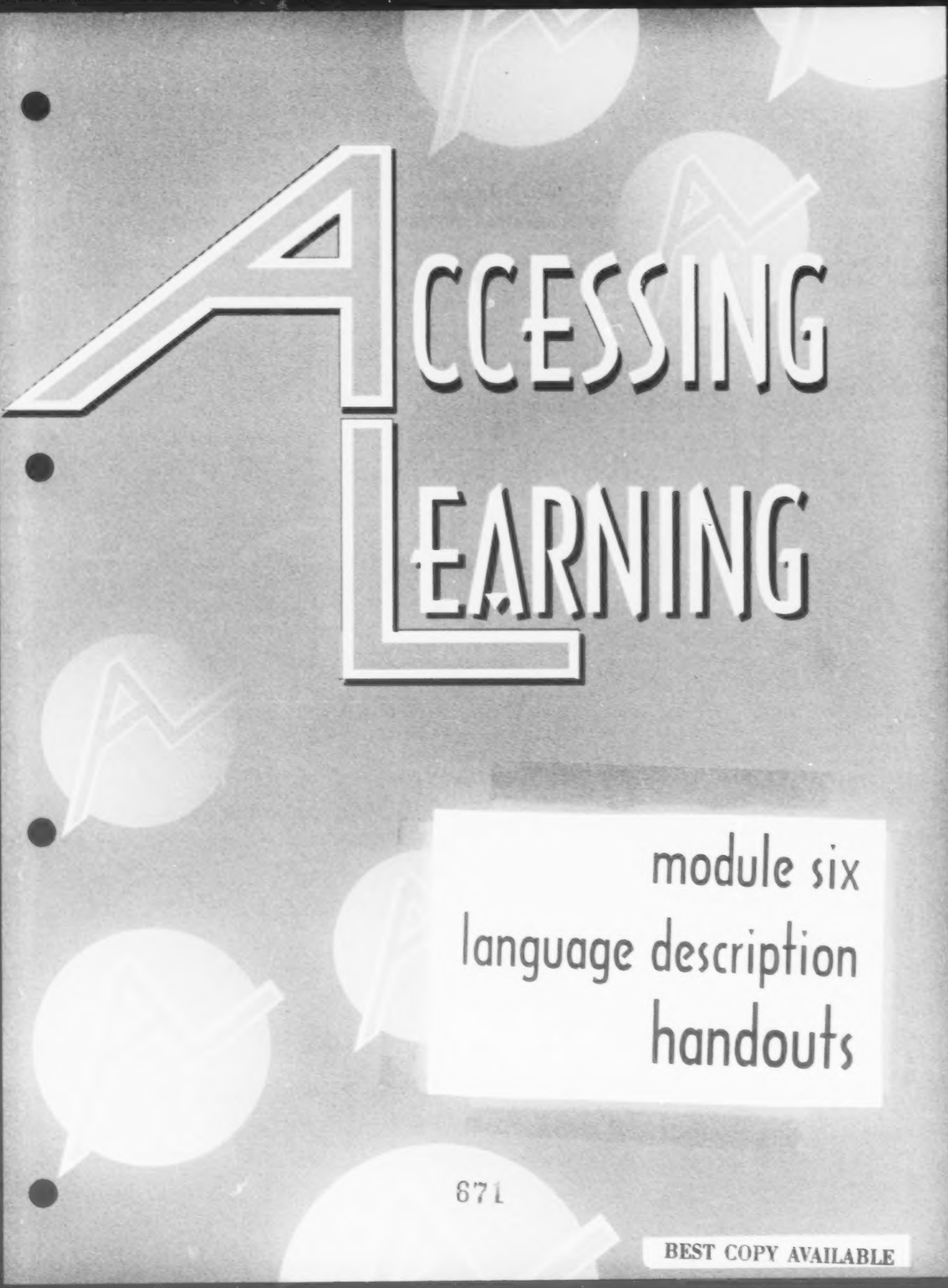
GIVEN	NEW
To be able to answer these questions	business needs the right information.
This information	is provided by properly kept accounting records
which	serve as the basis of decision making in a business.
Making the right decision at the right time	is essential to the success of a business.

TASK 5

Re-read Text 4 and consider these questions.

1. The author has not used the word *because*, but many reasons are stated for the building of the roads. Which words in Paragraph 1 imply reasons for building the roads?

2. Which word/s indicate that the results are actually results?



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TEXT 1: EXPLANATION (GEOGRAPHY)

Water in the atmosphere

When water evaporates, it changes into an invisible gas called water vapour. When air contains a lot of water vapour, we say the humidity is high. At different temperatures, air can hold different amounts of water vapour. When the air cannot hold any more water at a particular temperature, we say that the air is saturated or that it has a relative humidity of 100 per cent. If the air is carrying only three-quarters of the water it is capable of carrying then it has a relative humidity of 75 per cent; if it is carrying half its capacity, then its relative humidity is 50 per cent, and so on. Relative humidity, then, is a measure of the amount of water vapour being carried in air of a particular temperature compared with the total it could carry at that temperature.

At high temperatures, air can carry a great amount of water vapour. When the temperature of the saturated air falls, as it does when it rises in a convection current, the water vapour turns into tiny droplets of water or, as we say, it condenses. Further condensation may lead to the formation of clouds and precipitation in the form of rain, hail or snow.

Our Changing World, Book One,
C. Sale, G. Wilson & B. Friedman, 1980

1-1

TEXT 2: ACCOUNT (COMMERCE)

Why do businesses need to keep records?

Many businesses fail within their first two years of operation. Research has shown that the major reasons for their failure are:

a lack of capital;
b lack of accounting information and financial control;
c lack of management skill and experience;
d inability to respond to change.

Underlying many business failures is lack of managerial competence usually in the form of an adequate business recording and accounting system.
Proper accounting records provide business with the information upon which decisions can be made. Records provide businesses with the answers to important questions such as:

a What were total income and expenses for the previous year?
b What are the business's assets and liabilities?
c Is the business carrying too much stock?
d How much do debtors owe the business?
e Which items sold fastest and which sold the slowest?
f Which items were the most profitable?
g Which items had the highest turnover?
h How much ready cash does the business have?

To be able to answer these questions the business needs the right information. This information is provided by properly kept accounting records which serve as the basis of decision making in a business. Making the right decision at the right time is essential to the success of a business. The accounting provides the information to make these informed decisions.

In this chapter we look at some basic accounting concepts and examine how accounting gathers data and produces information which serves as a basis of decision making.

Commerce Two,
B. Parker, T. Clarke, P. Carter, 1988

TEXT 3: ACCOUNT (HISTORY)

THE END OF BUSHRANGING

Bushranging died out for a number of reasons. The invention of the telegraph and the beginnings of modern police methods made the bush telegraph less successful. Newspapers urged the police to rid the country of the evil bushrangers. The sympathy and help of the people lessened, especially as bushranging became more violent. With more police after the bushrangers it was only natural that there would be shoot-outs, and not only bushrangers but also police would be wounded or killed.

Land of the Southern Cross,
M. Bowering, L. Kerr, L. Soper, 1987

TEXT 4: ACCOUNT (HISTORY)

ROMAN ROADS IN BRITAIN

By AD 47, within four years of their invasion, the Romans had built almost 1,000 miles of roads. These roads were mainly for the army. The Roman legions needed to be able to march quickly to areas of trouble, as they did to put down Boudicca's revolt. Army generals had to gather news and send orders speedily, and the roads helped provide reliable supplies of food and reinforcements. Once an area was peaceful, the Romans still needed roads for government and tax collecting. Then traders would begin to use the roads to get grain, animals, metals and other goods to the army camps and the towns.

Once Roman rule was strong, thousands of Roman soldiers, officials, merchants and their families settled in Britain. Roman soldiers married British women, and Britons joined the Roman army. Britain's first true towns and cities began to grow, usually where there was an army camp. The towns had a Roman forum (market square), basilica (council building), baths, theatres, temple and town houses. Town life was impossible without goods for trade, travel and food supplies.

The Romans built altogether more than 6,000 miles of road ways. You can study these roads from many different sources.

Skills in History, Book One, Changes,
P. Shuter & J. Child, 1987

TEXT 1A: EXPLANATION (GEOGRAPHY) STAGES

Phenomenon	**Water in the atmosphere**
Explanation Sequence	When water evaporates, it changes into an invisible gas called water vapour. When air contains a lot of water vapour, we say the humidity is high. At different temperatures, air can hold different amounts of water vapour. When the air cannot hold any more water at a particular temperature, we say that the air is saturated or that it has a relative humidity of 100 per cent. If the air is carrying only three-quarters of the water it is capable of carrying then it has a relative humidity of 75 per cent; if it is carrying half its capacity, then its relative humidity is 50 per cent, and so on. Relative humidity, then, is a measure of the amount of water vapour being carried in air of a particular temperature compared with the total it could carry at that temperature. At high temperatures, air can carry a great amount of water vapour. When the temperature of the saturated air falls, as it does when it rises in a convection current, the water vapour turns into tiny droplets of water or, as we say, it condenses. Further condensation may lead to the formation of clouds and precipitation in the form of rain, hail or snow.

Our Changing World, Book One,
C. Sale, G. Wilson & B. Friedman, 1980

TEXT 2A: ACCOUNT (COMMERCE) STAGES

Phenomenon

Why do businesses need to keep records?

Many businesses fail within their first two years of operation.

Explanation Sequence

Research has shown that the major reasons for their failure are:
a lack of capital;
b lack of accounting information and financial control;
c lack of management skill and experience;
d inability to respond to change.

Underlying many business failures is lack of managerial competence usually in the form of an adequate business recording and accounting system.
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In this chapter we look at some basic accounting concepts and examine how accounting gathers data and produces information which serves as a basis of decision making.

Commerce Two,
B. Parker, T. Clarke, P. Carter, 1988

TEXT 3A: ACCOUNT (HISTORY) STAGES

Phenomenon	THE END OF BUSHRANGING Bushranging died out for a number of reasons. The
Explanation Factors	invention of the telegraph and the beginnings of modern police methods made the bush telegraph less successful. Newspapers urged the police to rid the country of the evil bushrangers. The sympathy and help of the people lessened, especially as bushranging became more violent. With more police after the bushrangers it was only natural that there would be shoot-outs, and not only bushrangers but also police would be wounded or killed.

Land of the Southern Cross,
M. Bowering, L. Kerr, L. Soper, 1987

TEXT 4A: ACCOUNT (HISTORY) STAGES

Phenomenon	ROMAN ROADS IN BRITAIN
Explanation Factors	By AD 47, within four years of their invasion, the Romans had built almost 1,000 miles of roads. These roads were mainly for the army. The Roman legions needed to be able to march quickly to areas of trouble, as they did to put down Boudicca's revolt. Army generals had to gather news and send orders speedily, and the roads helped provide reliable supplies of food and reinforcements. Once an area was peaceful, the Romans still needed roads for government and tax collecting. Then traders would begin to use the roads to get grain, animals, metals and other goods to the army camps and the towns.
Results	Once Roman rule was strong, thousands of Roman soldiers, officials, merchants and their families settled in Britain. Roman soldiers married British women, and Britons joined the Roman army. Britain's first true towns and cities began to grow, usually where there was an army camp. The towns had a Roman forum (market square), basilica (council building), baths, theatres, temple and town houses. Town life was impossible without goods for trade, travel and food supplies. The Romans built altogether more than 6,000 miles of road ways. You can study these roads from many different sources.

Skills in History, Book One, Changes,
P. Shuter & J. Child, 1987

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Stages of Explanations and Accounts

The generic structure of explanation and account is:

Phenomenon ^ Explanation Sequence ^ (Result)

Common Language Features of Explanation and Accounts

- Use of noun groups, which enable concepts and explanations to be built up around nouns.
- Nominalisation, which creates a thing from a process or attribute.
- Connectives, mainly about time to show sequence of events, or to show cause and effect relationships.
- Use of technical language.
- Generalised participants.
- Action verbs to build up events or offer an explanation, and to show the relationship between one part of the process and another.
- Past tense for specific events and things, eg *Bushranging died out, The Romans had built.*
- The timeless present tense, eg *contains, happens*, to indicate that this holds over time, and not just on specific occasion.
- The passive is used frequently because in natural phenomena, things are acted upon, eg *is condensed, is provided by.*

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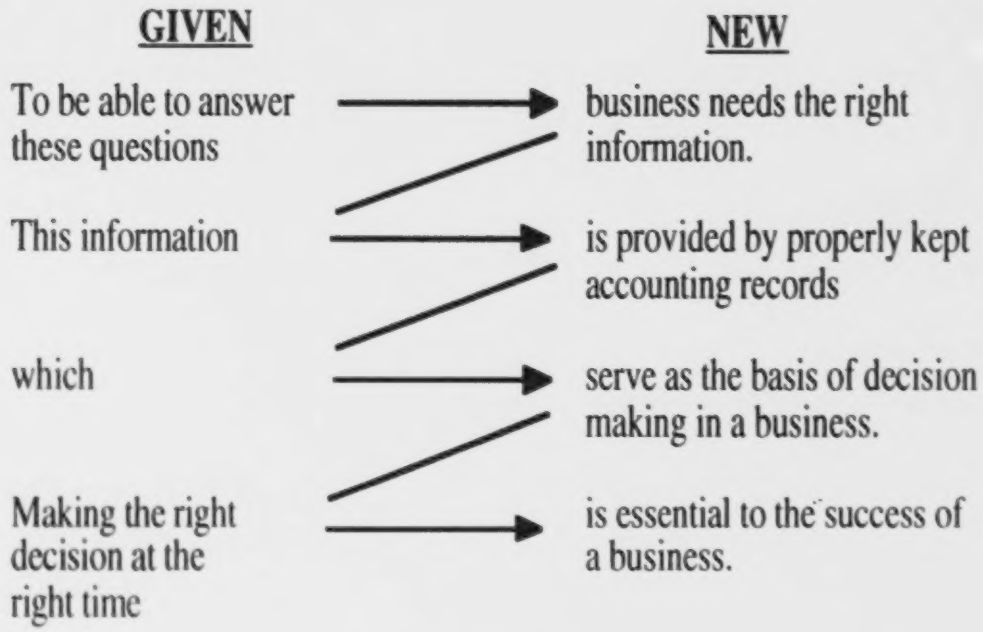
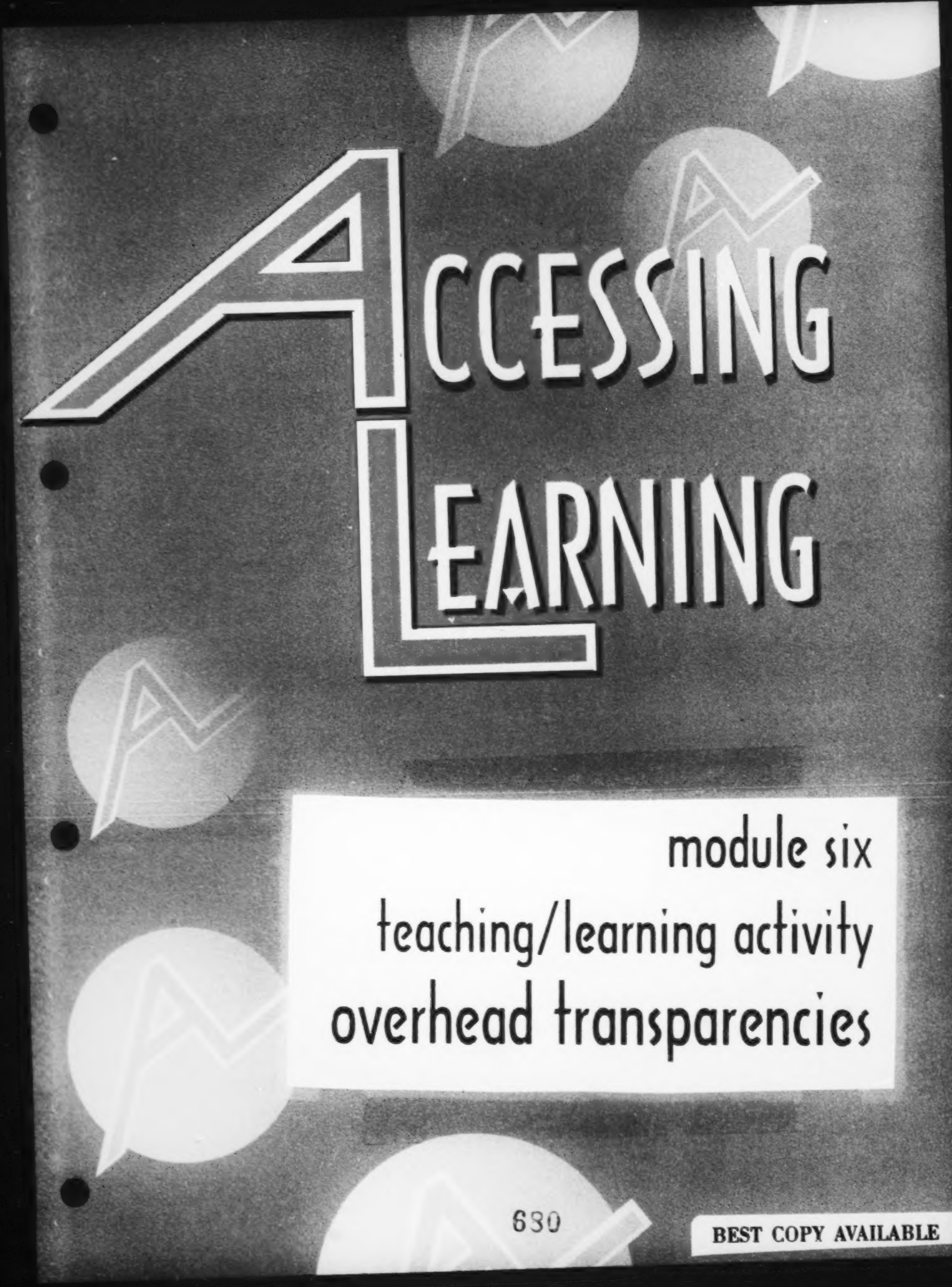


GIVEN	NEW
To be able to answer these questions	business needs the right information.
This information	is provided by properly kept accounting records
which	serve as the basis of decision making in a business.
Making the right decision at the right time	is essential to the success of a business.



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TASK 1

What do you understand by the term *dictation* ?

Read the passage from Handout 1 that describes an alternative approach.

In what ways does it differ from traditional dictation ?

2

The procedure for a dictogloss is as follows:

1. Students are prepared for the dictogloss.
2. A short text is read to students at normal speed.
3. The text is read again and students take note of key words and phrases.
4. The students pool their notes and attempt to reconstruct a version of the text.
5. Various versions are discussed and the students can adjust their own text in the light of the discussion.

TASK 2

In order to examine the dictogloss procedure more closely, let us draw on the example below, which was taken from a text book and used with a Year 8 Geography class.

1. How would you prepare students to tackle the following dictogloss?
2 Attempt to anticipate the language your students may struggle with in this dictogloss.
3. Write a list of these words or phrases and account for the difficulty.

Sample Dictogloss

Where does the salt come from?

When large trees are left growing, the salty underground water table remains at a fairly constant level. It usually does not rise after rainfall, because the roots of the trees absorb other water as it filters through the soil. If these large trees are cut down, the roots are no longer there to absorb water from the rainfall. Instead the water seeps down through the soil to the water table below. As there is now more water reaching it, the level of this salty water table rises, bringing salt with it. Eventually the salt can rise as high as the surface of the soil.

Australia, A Core Geography,
J.Butler and G.Kleeman, 1992

4

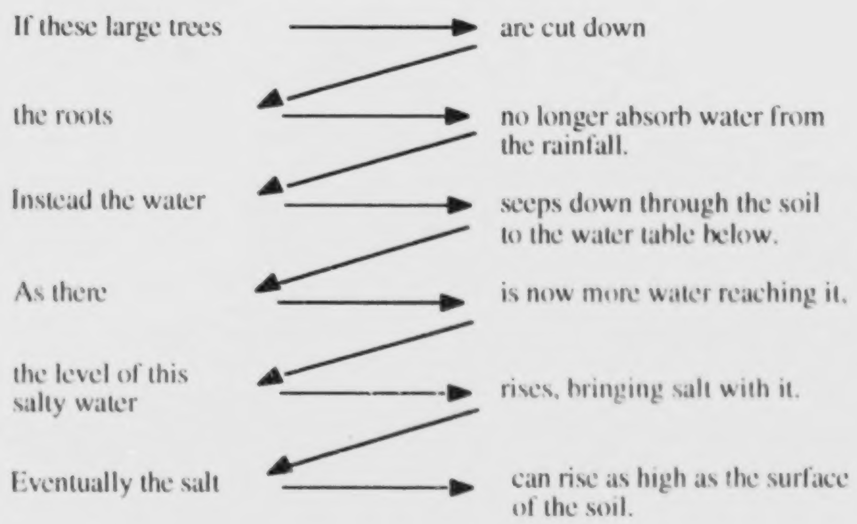
Where do we get salt from?

Where do we get salt from? If we don't cut down large trees, the water table under the [illegible] ground stays at the same level. It won't rise after it rains, because the roots of the trees d drink in the water as it goes through the soil. But when large trees are cut down, then the roots aren't there any more So when it rains, the water runs through the soil to the water table. Now there is more water down there and the water table with the salt in it rises. It brings the salt up with it, sometimes right up to the surface.

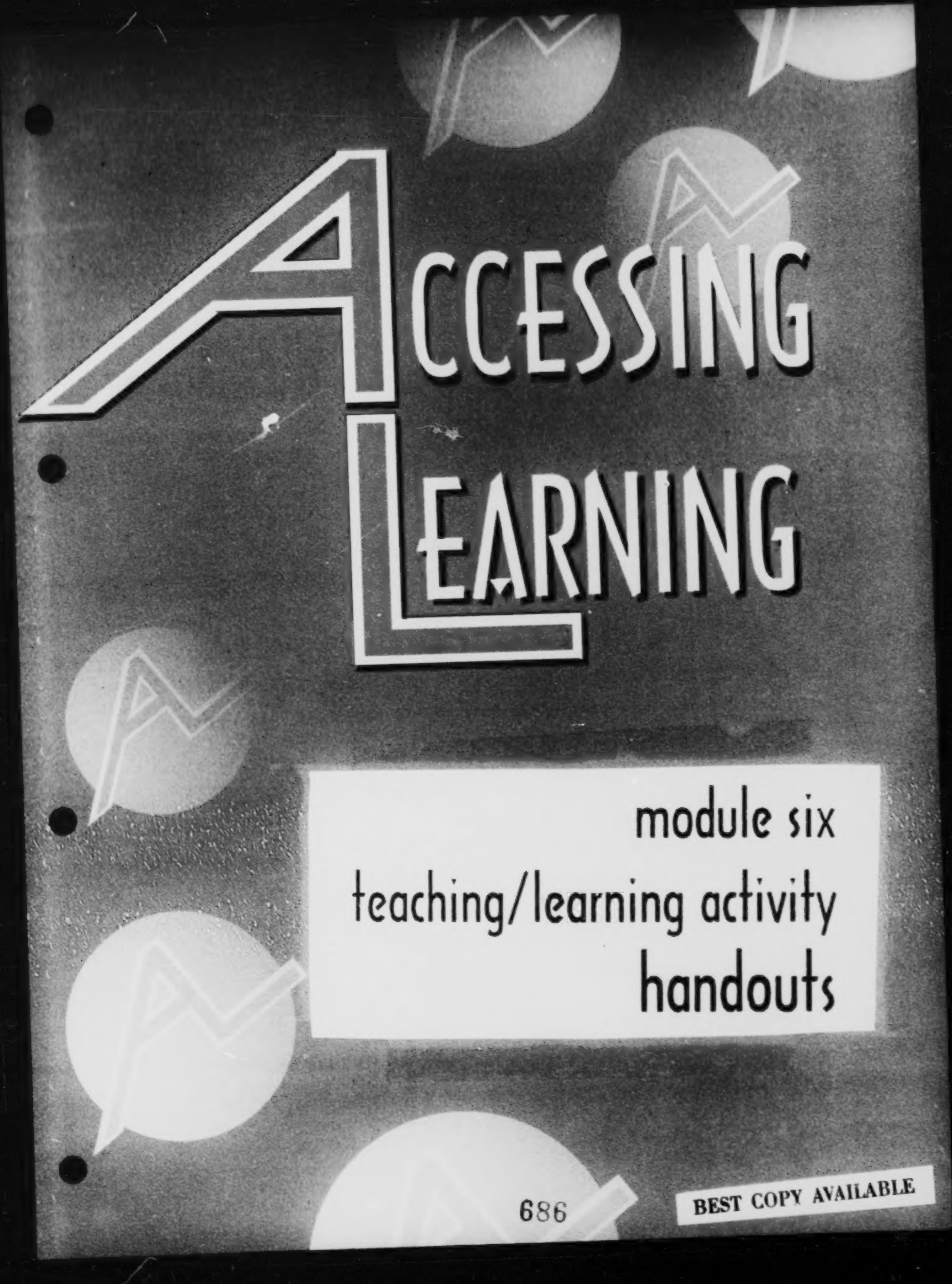
TASK 3

Draw the Given/New structure that would be used to assist a group of students who were having difficulty clearly explaining the process of salination.

GIVEN	NEW
When large trees	are left growing
the salty underground water table	remains at a fairly constant level.
It	usually does not rise after rainfall
because the roots of the trees	absorb other water
as it	filters through the soil.



If these large trees	are cut down
the roots	no longer absorb water from the rainfall.
Instead the water	seeps down through the soil to the water table below.
As there	is now more water reaching it.
the level of this salty water	rises, bringing salt with it.
Eventually the salt	can rise as high as the surface of the soil.



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Description of a Dictogloss

Dictogloss is an activity in which short pieces of language are read out at normal speed to students. The students take down the key words and then attempt to reconstruct their passage from the general understanding or gist of the text and from their notes. The task of reconstructing the text in their own words requires the students to consciously focus on their knowledge of the content and the relationship between ideas and words and is dependent upon small group interaction since the students do not work alone in the reconstructions, but pool their key words and understanding to complete the task.

The procedure is as follows:

1. Students are prepared for the dictogloss through:
   - Explanation of the procedures of a dictogloss and practice in noting key words (first time only) ;
   - Discussion of the content to evoke schemas.
2. A short text is read to students at normal speed.
3. The text is read again and students take note of key words and phrases.
4. Working in small groups, the students pool their notes and attempt to reconstruct a version of the text from their shared resources that contains the main ideas of the text and approximates the generic staging and language choices of the passage.

5. Various versions are discussed and the students can adjust their own text in the light of the discussion. One means of doing this is to have students write their version of the text on the board. If, for example, students are working in four groups, divide the board into four columns and ask one student from each group to enter his/her version of the text down one column, this enables the students and teacher to draw on all four versions to decide on the best final text. Alternatively OHTs (one per group) can be used. It is useful for the teacher to prepare for this phase of the lesson by considering the most important language features of the text, so as to be prepared to focus on them with the students.

2

Sample Dictogloss

Where does the salt come from?

When large trees are left growing, the salty underground water table remains at a fairly constant level. It usually does not rise after rainfall, because the roots of the trees absorb other water as it filters through the soil. If these large trees are cut down, the roots are no longer there to absorb water from the rainfall. Instead the water seeps down through the soil to the water table below. As there is now more water reaching it, the level of this salty water table rises, bringing salt with it. Eventually the salt can rise as high as the surface of the soil.

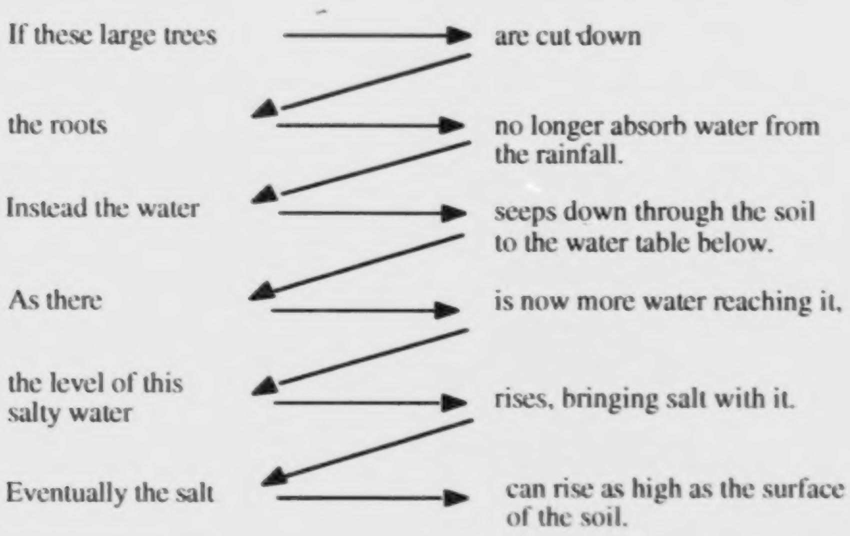
Australia, A Core Geography,
J. Butler and G. Kleeman, 1992

Where do we get salt from?

Where do we get salt from? If we don't cut down large trees, the water table under the ~~[illegible]~~ ground stays at the same level. It won't rise after it rains, because the roots of the trees do drink in the water as it goes through the soil. But when large trees are cut down, then the roots aren't there any more So when it rains, the water runs through the soil to the water table. Now there is more water down there and the water table with the salt in it rises. It brings the salt up with it, sometimes right up to the surface.

Given/New Structures

GIVEN	NEW
When large trees	are left growing
the salty underground water table	remains at a fairly constant level.
It	usually does not rise after rainfall
because the roots of the trees	absorb other water
as it	filters through the soil.



If these large trees	are cut down
the roots	no longer absorb water from the rainfall.
Instead the water	seeps down through the soil to the water table below.
As there	is now more water reaching it,
the level of this salty water	rises, bringing salt with it.
Eventually the salt	can rise as high as the surface of the soil.

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module seven

LANGUAGE AND LITERACY DEVELOPMENT IN KEY LEARNING AREAS

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TASK 1

The working texts are four arguments and three discussions taken from secondary textbooks. Read the one(s) relevant to your subjects and then consider the following:

What is the purpose of this argument/discussion?

Who would read it and why?

How would you divide the text into stages?

What is the purpose of each stage?

2

The generic structure or staging of arguments

Thesis ^ (Preview of arguments) ^ Argument(s) ^ Conclusion

The symbol ^ means ‘followed by’.
Brackets () indicate an optional stage.

This generic structure can be further elaborated as either:

(a)
Thesis ^ Preview of Issue ^ Argument for and Elaboration ^ Argument for and Elaboration ^ Argument against and Elaboration ^ Argument against and Elaboration ^ Recommendation

or

(b)
Thesis ^ Preview of Issue ^ Argument for and Elaboration ^ Argument against and Elaboration ^ Argument for and Elaboration ^ Argument against and Elaboration ^ Recommendation

Evaluating the suitability of materials

Aim ^ Apparatus ^ Method ^ Observations and Results ^ Conclusion

Title	Evaluation of suitable metals for a barbecue utensil
Thesis	Materials tested: mild steel, copper, brass and aluminium. Which metal has the properties of low heat conductivity, high corrosion resistance, and malleability?
Heat conductivity Test 1	Heat conductivity was tested by heating an equal weight of each metal attached to a fixed paper clip by a piece of wax.
Result 1	The copper fell off the paper clip first, followed by the aluminium, steel and finally the brass.
Corrosion resistance Test 2	Corrosion resistance was tested by placing each test piece on cotton balls moistened with water.
Result 2	After two hours the metals were observed. The mild steel had rusted significantly with the copper and aluminium showing high oxidisation and the brass not changing.
Malleability Test 3	Malleability was tested by hitting each piece of metal with a hammer dropped from a fixed height.
Result 3	The aluminium was the softest metal followed by copper, brass and finally steel.
Conclusion	Testing the properties of heat conductivity, corrosion resistance, and malleability shows that brass is the most suitable metal for making a barbecue utensil.

Evaluating the design product

Thesis ^ Preview ^ Arguments for (successes) ^ Arguments against (shortcomings) ^ Recommendations

4

TASK 3

Look at the pairs of sentences below. In each pair the first sentence is more spoken-like than the second. The table *Spoken-like becomes written-like* examines the differences.

Describe what has changed to move the sentences from spoken-like to written-like.

Commerce

1. We must remember, though, that many businesses fail.
2. Consideration must be given to the failure of many businesses.

History

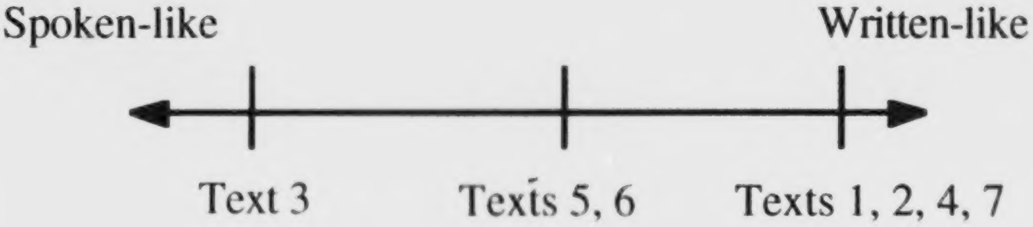
1. Wars cost a lot. They kill and destroy and waste resources but they also change the use of industry and technology.
2. Wars are costly exercises. They cause death and destruction and put resources to non-productive uses but they also promote industrial and technological change.

Materials Technology

1. We should obey the rules for being safe in the work shop.
2. It is important that people obey the safety regulations set down in the workshop.

Spoken-like becomes Written-like	
Commerce	
we must remember	consideration must
many businesses fail	the failure of many businesses
History	
cost a lot	are costly exercises
and (they) kill	and death
they destroy	they cause destruction
and (they) waste resources	and put resources to non-productive uses
they change the use of industry and technology	industrial and technological change
Materials Technology	
we should obey the rules for being safe	It is important that people obey the safety regulations set down

6


Spoken-like
Written-like
Text 3
Texts 5, 6
Texts 1, 2, 4, 7

TASK 4

Look at the texts relevant to your subject and answer the following questions:

1. Does the text give general information about people/things/events or does it discuss particular people/things/events?
2. Are there expressions of attitude or feelings? If so, note a few examples.
3. Are there technical terms? How are these defined and classified?
4. What kinds of words link ideas together?

8

Arguments and Discussions

Arguments and discussion share common language features:

- The participants are generalised; mostly they are abstract *(rules, business, wars)* although they can also be human *(technical drawing students, people).*
- Use of passive voice to depersonalise text. (Refer to the Glossary of Language Features in Module Two for an explanation of the passive voice.)
- Connectives of reason and result *(because, so).* A logical line of argument is represented with sequencing connectives *(firstly, secondly).*
- Use of technical, abstract terms *(business).*
- Use of modality *(probably, must)* to soften a point of view or take a stand.
- Use of emotive words to sway the reader *(destruction, inadequacies).*
- Mainly present tense with a mixture of verb types when presenting a point of view.

TASK 5

Look at the following noun groups from Text 4.

1. *The enlargement of Australia's steel-making capacity, and of chemicals, rubber, metal goods and motor vehicles ...*
2. *... something of a hot-house for technological progress and economic change.*
3. *... inadequacies in Australia's scientific and research capabilities.*

The author uses noun groups to pack a number of ideas into a single clause. Rewrite (unpack) each of these noun groups, as you might with students to help them with their reading.

Refer to the Glossary of Language Features for an explanation of noun groups.

10

Ways of unpacking the sentences would be:

1. Australia was capable of making steel, chemicals, rubber, metal goods and motor vehicles. This capacity grew and became larger.
2. Change was made in economics and progress was made in technology, and these two were expanding rapidly.
3. Australia had capabilities in science and in research, but they were not good enough.

Starting a business
The establishment of a business
(*nominalisation*)

Why do businesses exist?
Reasons for the existence of businesses
(*nominalisation*)

We often hear the word business in our everyday lives
The word business is commonly used
(*thematisation*)

We hear of people who 'go into business', people who 'run a business', people who 'sell their business' or even people who 'go out of business'.

People who go into business, run a business, sell
(*thematisation*)
their business, go out of business are often discussed.
(*thematisation*)

What then is a business?
Definition of a business
(*nominalisation*)

This means that we specialise in a particular occupation and earn money which we exchange for the goods and services we want.

This specialisation in a particular occupation earns
(*thematisation, nominalisation*)
money which is exchanged for the goods and
(*passive voice*)
services which are wanted.

We rely on each other to produce these goods and services and distribute them to the people who want them.

The members of a community rely on each other to
(*generalised participants*)
produce and distribute these goods and services

There is an important link therefore between producers (those who provide the goods and services) and consumers (those who use the goods and services).

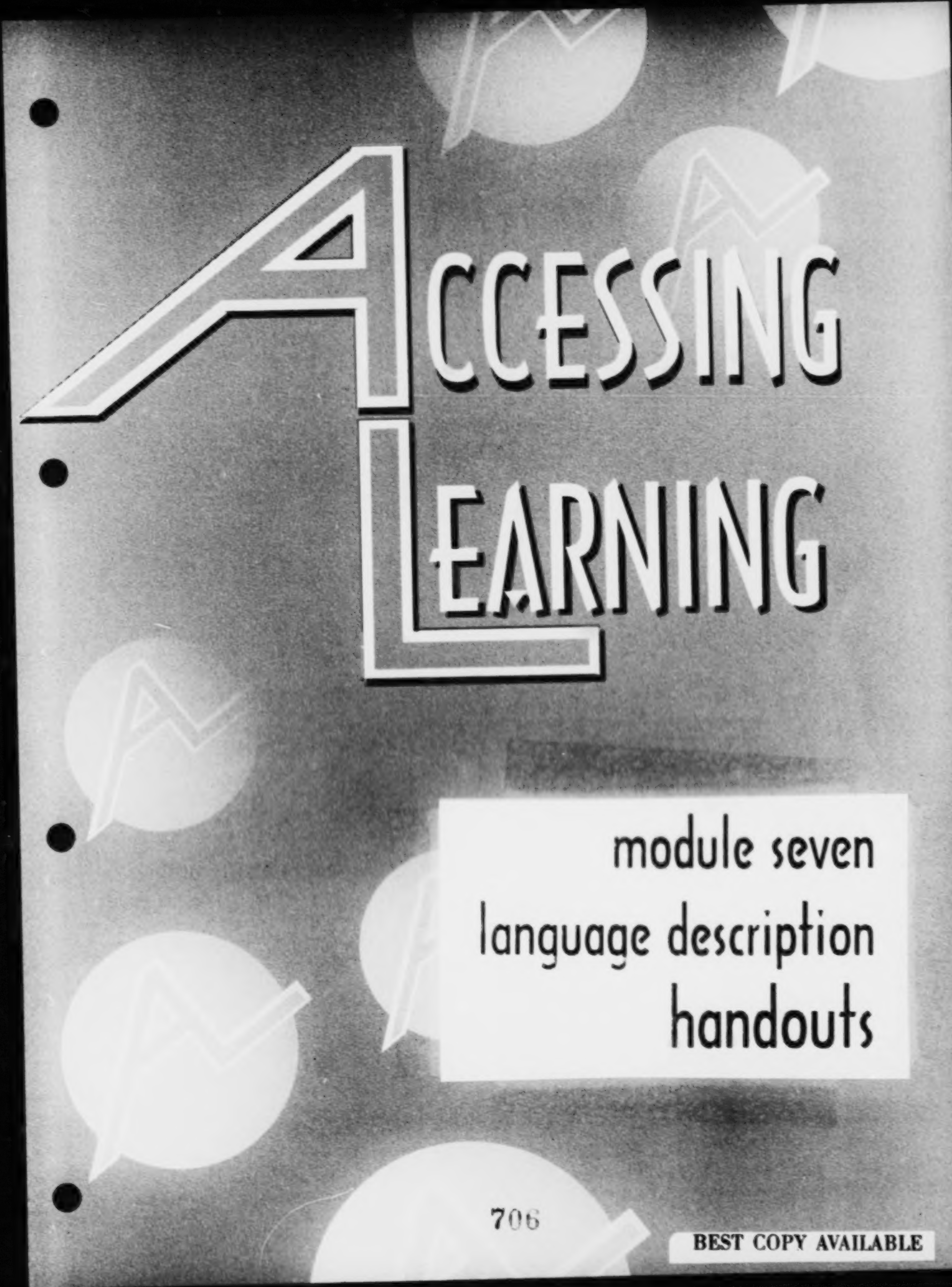
thus creating an important link between producers
(*connecting device*)
(those who provide the goods and services) and consumers (those who use the goods and services).

Businesses exist to help in the process of satisfying people's wants. Businesses exist to supply people with such things as food, clothing, housing, electrical goods, medical care, legal services, luxury goods and entertainment.

Businesses exist to help in the satisfaction of wants
(*nominalisation*)
and supply of such things as food, clothing, housing, electrical goods, medical care, legal services, luxury goods and entertainment.

TASK 7

Throughout this course a range of language resources has been explored. The ability to control these resources helps writers to achieve their purpose. List the language resources which would enable students to read more successfully and to create or edit their own writing to make it more appropriate.



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TEXT 1: ARGUMENT (DRAWING)

Drawing Objectives

Technical Drawing is not only a way of communicating ideas but is also an essential part of any design process. Four important objectives should be kept in mind by technical drawing students.

1. Legibility
   Since each drawing is a means of communicating it should be clear and legible. Particular care should be taken with details such as lettering and dimension.

2. Neatness
   If a drawing is to be legible it must be clean and neat.

3. Accuracy
   A drawing must convey ideas of shape and proportion and must be accurate to be of any use. The accuracy of your drawing will depend greatly on the condition of your instruments and the manner in which they are used.

4. Speed
   Speed in executing a drawing comes with the practice of good techniques and a thorough understanding of the processes involved.

Programmed Technical Drawing,
R.K. Mullins & D.A. Cooper, 1974

TEXT 2: ARGUMENT (MATERIALS TECHNOLOGY)

Safety in the Workshop

Safety in the workshop should be the responsibility of all people who enter it, whether they are visitors or workers. Safety first is not a set of rules, it is a state of mind. Rules help the workers develop a safe attitude to work by drawing to their attention potentially dangerous situations; but in the long run, it is the workers' actions which cause accidents. It is important that people obey the safety regulations set down, but just as important is the worker's knowledge of what he or she is doing, what dangers this operation entails, and what should be done to work safely.

To aid the reader to work in a safe manner, a safety guide has been appointed and whenever he appears in the book he will bring you advice on how to carry out an operation safely. His name is Mr Safety.

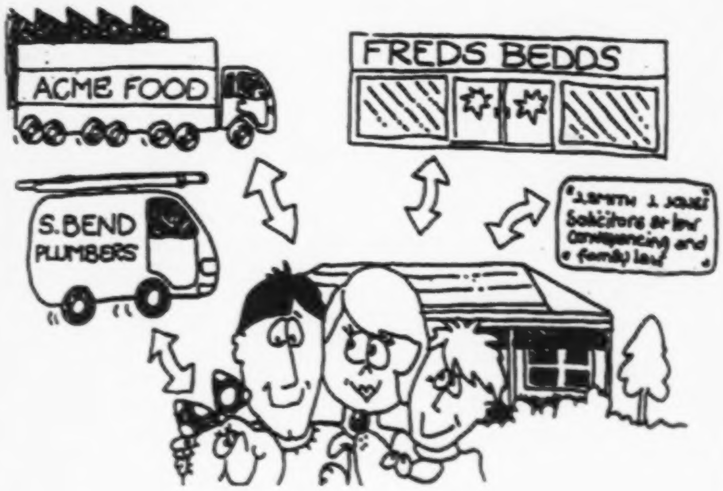
Metalworking Part One, Second Edition,
B.W. Abelson & A.J. Pateman, 1988

TEXT 3: REPORT/ARGUMENT (COMMERCE)

Starting a Business

Why do businesses exist?

We often hear the word business in our everyday lives. We hear of people who 'go into business', people who 'run a business', people who 'sell their business' or even people who 'go out of business'.


ACME FOOD
FREDS BEDDS
S.BEND PLUMBERS
J.SMITH & JONES Solicitors at law Conveyancing and family law

What then is a business? We may regard a business as an organisation which operates to satisfy people's wants. We already know that people have wants and in a commercial economy these wants are satisfied by specialisation and exchange. This means that we specialise in a particular occupation and earn money which we exchange for the goods and services we want. We rely on each other to produce these goods and services and distribute them to the people who want them. There is an important link therefore between producers (those who provide the goods and services) and consumers (those who use the goods and services). Businesses exist to help in the process of satisfying people's wants. Businesses exist to supply people with such things as food, clothing, housing, electrical goods, medical care, legal services, luxury goods and entertainment.

Commerce Two,
B. Parker, T. Clarke & P. Carter, 1988

TEXT 4: ARGUMENT (HISTORY)

The Economy

Wars are costly exercises. They cause death and destruction and put resources to non-productive uses but they also promote industrial and technological change. This benefit does not mean that war is a good thing, but that it sometimes brings useful developments.

The Second World War further encouraged the restructuring of the Australian economy on a manufacturing basis. Between 1937 and 1945 the value of industrial production almost doubled. This increase was faster than otherwise would have occurred. The momentum was maintained in the post-war years and by 1954-5 the value of manufacturing output was three times that of 1944-5. The enlargement of Australia's steel-making capacity, and of chemicals, rubber, metal goods and motor vehicles all owed something to the demands of the war. The war had acted as something of a hot-house for technological progress and economic change.

The war also revealed inadequacies in Australia's scientific and research capabilities. After the war, strenuous efforts were made to improve these. The Australian National University was established with an emphasis on research. The government gave its support to the advancement of science in many areas, including agricultural production. Though it is difficult to disentangle the effects of war from other influences, it is clear that future generations not only enjoyed the security and peace won by their forefathers but also the benefits of war-time economic expansion.

For Australia's Sake,
H. Simmelhaig & G. Spenceley, 1984

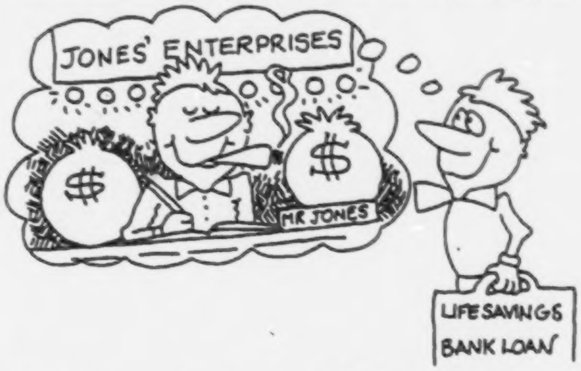
TEXT 5: DISCUSSION (COMMERCE)

Why do people go into business?

In our commercial economy people are encouraged by the opportunity of making a profit. Profit is said to be the reward for taking a risk. If the business is very successful its owner or owners may well earn substantial profits. If the business is unsuccessful the owner or owners may well suffer a loss. They may lose the money they have invested or put into the business.

So what makes some people decide to go into business? Here are some typical comments:

'I wanted to work for myself rather than for a boss.'
'I was sick of working for wages. I wanted the chance to make some real money.'
'I had this great idea and I wanted to try it out.'
'I like the idea of taking risks. I might not succeed, but then again I might be a millionaire one day.'
'I had some money given to me and so I decided to make it work for me by starting up a business.'
'My family has always been in business so it seemed to be the right thing to do.'



We must remember though that many businesses fail. A quick look at this year's yellow pages telephone book in comparison with last year's will reveal quite a number of business names missing and new ones in their place. There are some people who fail in a business but are prepared to try again, sometimes with great success. Others try again and again without success.

Remember also that not everyone wants to go into business. There are people who don't have enough money to go into business or who simply don't wish to go into business for themselves. These people might make these sorts of comments:

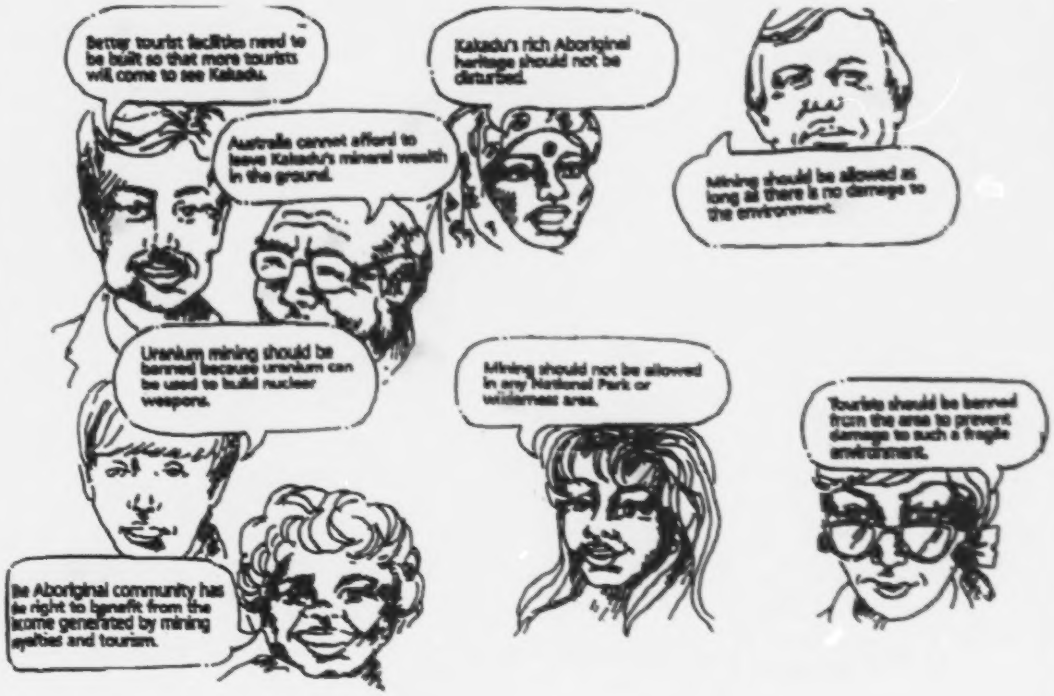
'I enjoy the security of working for wages. I get regular holidays and the boss really looks after me.'
'I don't like taking risks. I worry too much. I would prefer a steady job with a steady income.'
'I haven't got enough money to start a business anyway.'
'I tried going into business. It didn't work. I'd rather work for someone else now and let them do the worrying.'
'I don't really have any idea as to what sort of business I should go into. My family has always worked for someone else.'

Commerce Two,
B. Parker, T. Clarke & P. Carter, 1988

TEXT 6: DISCUSSION (GEOGRAPHY)

Different views about Kakadu

There are have many arguments about development in the Kakadu area, and during the 1980s and early 1990s the number of tourists visiting Kakadu increased greatly. This has meant that more people come to know about Kakadu, and that there has been more public interest in what happens there.


Better tourist facilities need to be built so that more tourists will come to see Kakadu.
Kakadu's rich Aboriginal heritage should not be disturbed.
Australia cannot afford to leave Kakadu's mineral wealth in the ground.
Mining should be allowed as long as there is no damage to the environment.
Uranium mining should be banned because uranium can be used to build nuclear weapons.
Mining should not be allowed in any National Park or wilderness area.
Tourists should be banned from the area to prevent damage to such a fragile environment.
he Aboriginal community has he right to benefit from the icome generated by mining yalties and tourism.

Managing the environment of Kakadu is a difficult task. One of the problems in managing Kakadu National Park, for instance, is ensuring that the Aboriginal rock paintings are kept in good condition. Because of the number visitors to the sites of these paintings, there is always the risk that the ancient artworks could be damaged. However, it is also important that many Australians see such sites to help them better appreciate our Australian Aboriginal heritage.

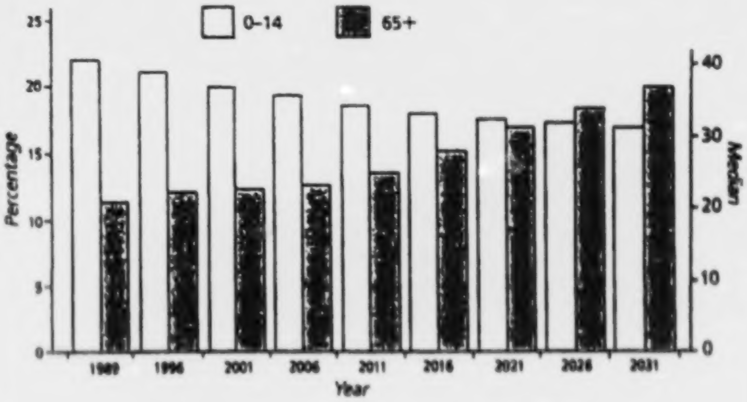
Another management problem is the development of mining in the Kakadu region. The area of the Ranger Uranium Mine is carved out of the Kakadu National Park. In 1991 a proposal to mine uranium at Coronation Hill, in the south of Kakadu, was rejected by the Federal Government.

Australia: A Core Geography,
J. Butler and G. Kleeman, 1992

TEXT 7: DISCUSSION (GEOGRAPHY)

How many people can Australia support?

Although there would seem to be enough food and space for everyone in Australia at present, there is argument about how many people Australia can support at our present standard of living. People disagree about how many migrants should be admitted, and what size population we should aim at.



Predictions of old and young in the population. (Source: ABS)

Australia: A Core Geography,
J. Butler and G. Kleeman, 1992

Evaluating the suitability of materials

Aim ^ Apparatus ^ Method ^ Observations and Results ^ Conclusion

Below is an example of an evaluation of suitable metals for a barbecue utensil.

Title	Evaluation of suitable metals for a barbecue utensil
Thesis	Materials tested: mild steel, copper, brass and aluminium. Which metal has the properties of low heat conductivity, high corrosion resistance, and malleability?
Heat conductivity Test 1	Heat conductivity was tested by heating an equal weight of each metal attached to a fixed paper clip by a piece of wax.
Result 1	The copper fell off the paper clip first, followed by the aluminium, steel and finally the brass.
Corrosion resistance Test 2	Corrosion resistance was tested by placing each test piece on cotton balls moistened with water.
Result 2	After two hours the metals were observed. The mild steel had rusted significantly with the copper and aluminium showing high oxidisation and the brass not changing.
Malleability Test 3	Malleability was tested by hitting each piece of metal with a hammer dropped from a fixed height.
Result 3	The aluminium was the softest metal followed by copper, brass and finally steel.
Conclusion	Testing the properties of heat conductivity, corrosion resistance, and malleability shows that brass is the most suitable metal for making a barbecue utensil.

The language of this type of evaluative writing is impersonal, with technical language highlighted.

Evaluating the design project

Thesis ^ Preview ^ Arguments for (successes) ^ Arguments against (shortcomings) ^ Recommendations

3

TEXT 1A: ARGUMENT (DRAWING) STAGES

	Drawing Objectives
Thesis and Preview of Argument	Technical Drawing is not only a way of communicating ideas but is also an essential part of any design process. Four important objectives should be kept in mind by technical drawing students.
Argument	1. Legibility Since each drawing is a means of communicating it should be clear and legible. Particular care should be taken with details such as lettering and dimension. 2. Neatness If a drawing is to be legible it must be clean and neat. 3. Accuracy A drawing must convey ideas of shape and proportion and must be accurate to be of any use. The accuracy of your drawing will depend greatly on the condition of your instruments and the manner in which they are used. 4. Speed Speed in executing a drawing comes with the practice of good techniques and a thorough understanding of the processes involved.
	Programmed Technical Drawing, R.K. Mullins & D.A. Cooper, 1974

ARGUMENT TEXT 2A: ARGUMENT (MATERIALS TECHNOLOGY) STAGES

	Safety in the workshop
Thesis	Safety in the workshop should be the responsibility of all people who enter it, whether they are visitors or workers.
Argument	Safety first is not a set of rules, it is a state of mind. Rules help the workers develop a safe attitude to work by drawing to their attention potentially dangerous situations; but in the long run, it is the workers' actions which cause accidents. It is important that people obey the safety regulations set down, but just as important is the worker's knowledge of what he or she is doing, what dangers this operation entails, and what should be done to work safely. To aid the reader to work in a safe manner, a safety guide has been appointed and whenever he appears in the book he will bring you advice on how to carry out an operation safely. His name is **Mr Safety.**
	Metalworking Part One, Second Edition, B.W. Abelson & A.J. Pateman, 1988

TEXT 3A: REPORT/ARGUMENT (COMMERCE) STAGES

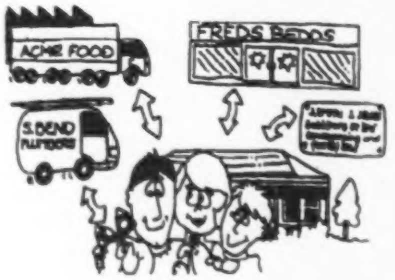
Starting a Business

Thesis

Why do businesses exist?

Report

We often hear the word business in our everyday lives. We hear of people who 'go into business', people who 'run a business', people who 'sell their business' or even people who 'go out of business'.



What then is a business? We may regard a business as an organisation which operates to satisfy people's wants. We already know that people have wants and in a commercial economy these wants are satisfied by specialisation and exchange.

Argument

This means that we specialise in a particular occupation and earn money which we exchange for the goods and services we want. We rely on each other to produce these goods and services and distribute them to the people who want them.

There is an important link therefore between producers (those who provide the goods and services) and consumers (those who use the goods and services).

Conclusion

Businesses exist to help in the process of satisfying people's wants. Businesses exist to supply people with such things as food, clothing, housing, electrical goods, medical care, legal services, luxury goods and entertainment.

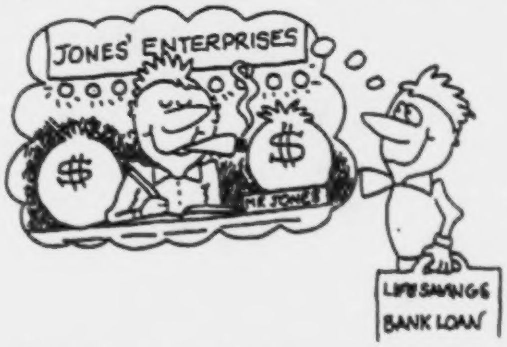
Commerce Two,
B. Parker, T. Clarke & P. Carter, 1988

TEXT 4A: (HISTORY) ARGUMENT STAGES

	The Economy
Thesis	[There is no thesis stated. It is implicit, ie wars aren't all bad.]
Argument	Wars are costly exercises. They cause death and destruction and put resources to non-productive uses but they also promote industrial and technological change. This benefit does not mean that war is a good thing, but that it sometimes brings useful developments. The Second World War further encouraged the restructuring of the Australian economy on a manufacturing basis. Between 1937 and 1945 the value of industrial production almost doubled. This increase was faster than otherwise would have occurred. The momentum was maintained in the post-war years and by 1954–5 the value of manufacturing output was three times that of 1944–5. The enlargement of Australia's steel-making capacity, and of chemicals, rubber, metal goods and motor vehicles all owed something to the demands of the war. The war had acted as something of a hot-house for technological progress and economic change. The war also revealed inadequacies in Australia's scientific and research capabilities. After the war, strenuous efforts were made to improve these. The Australian National University was established with an emphasis on research. The government gave its support to the advancement of science in many areas, including agricultural production.
Conclusion	Though it is difficult to disentangle the effects of war from other influences, it is clear that future generations not only enjoyed the security and peace won by their forefathers but also the benefits of war-time economic expansion.

For Australia's Sake,
H. Simmelhaig & G. Spenceley T. Nelson, 1984

TEXT 5A: DISCUSSION (COMMERCE) STAGES

Thesis	Why do people go into business?
Preview of Issue	In our commercial economy people are encouraged by the opportunity of making a profit. Profit is said to be the reward for taking a risk. If the business is very successful its owner or owners may well earn substantial profits. If the business is unsuccessful the owner or owners may well suffer a loss. They may lose the money they have invested or put into the business.
Arguments For	So what makes some people decide to go into business? Here are some typical comments: 'I wanted to work for myself rather than for a boss.' 'I was sick of working for wages. I wanted the chance to make some real money.' 'I had this great idea and I wanted to try it out.' 'I like the idea of taking risks. I might not succeed, but then again I might be a millionaire one day.' 'I had some money given to me and so I decided to make it work for me by starting up a business.' 'My family has always been in business so it seemed to be the right thing to do.'
	 JONES' ENTERPRISES $ $ MR JONES LIFESAVINGS BANK LOAN
Arguments Against	We must remember though that many businesses fail. A quick look at this year's yellow pages telephone book in comparison with last year's will reveal quite a number of business names missing and new ones in their place. There are some people who fail in a business but are prepared to try again, sometimes with great success. Others try again and again without success. Remember also that not everyone wants to go into business. There are people who don't have enough money to go into business or who simply don't wish to go into business for themselves. These people might make these sorts of comments: 'I enjoy the security of working for wages. I get regular holidays and the boss really looks after me.' 'I don't like taking risks. I worry too much. I would prefer a steady job with a steady income.' 'I haven't got enough money to start a business anyway.' 'I tried going into business. It didn't work. I'd rather work for someone else now and let them do the worrying.' 'I don't really have any idea as to what sort of business I should go into. My family has always worked for someone else.'

Commerce Two,
B. Parker, T. Clarke & P. Carter, 1988

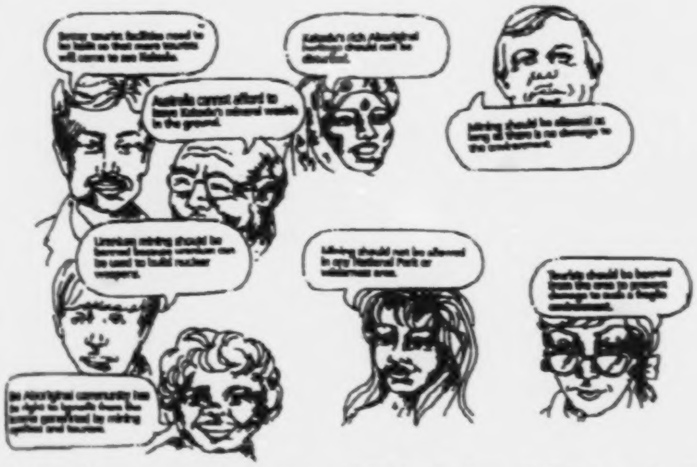
TEXT 6A: DISCUSSION (GEOGRAPHY) STAGES

Different views about Kakadu

Thesis

There are have many arguments about development in the Kakadu area, and during the 1980s and early 1990s the number of tourists visiting Kakadu increased greatly. This has meant that more people come to know about Kakadu, and that there has been more public interest in what happens there.

Arguments for and against



Managing the environment of Kakadu is a difficult task. One of the problems in managing Kakadu National Park, for instance, is ensuring that the Aboriginal rock paintings are kept in good condition. Because of the number of visitors to the sites of these paintings, there is always the risk that the ancient artworks could be damaged. However, it is also important that many Australians see such sites to help them better appreciate our Australian Aboriginal heritage.

Another management problem is the development of mining in the Kakadu region. The area of the Ranger Uranium Mine is carved out of the Kakadu National Park. In 1991 a proposal to mine uranium at Coronation Hill, in the south of Kakadu, was rejected by the Federal Government.

Australia: A Core Geography,
J. Butler and G. Kleeman, 1992

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TEXT 7A: DISCUSSION (GEOGRAPHY) STAGES

Thesis

How many people can Australia support?

Preview of Issues

Although there would seem to be enough food and space for everyone in Australia at present, there is argument about how many people Australia can support at our present standard of living. People disagree about how many migrants should be admitted, and what size population we should aim at.

Figure

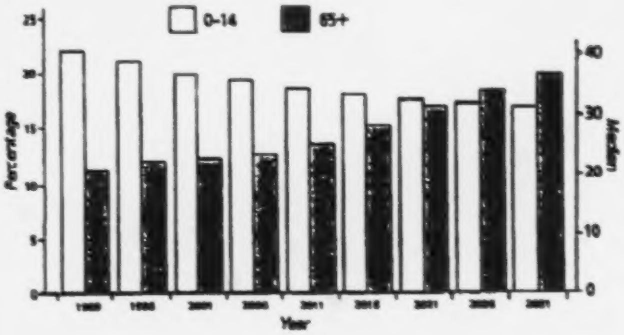


Figure - Predictions of old and young in the population.
(Source: ABS)

Australia: A Core Geography,
J. Butler and G. Kleeman, 1992

TASK 3

Look at the pairs of sentences below. In each pair the first sentence is more spoken-like than the second. The table *Spoken-like becomes written-like* examines the differences.

Describe what has changed to move the sentences from spoken-like to written-like.

Commerce

1. We must remember, though, that many businesses fail.
2. Consideration must be given to the failure of many businesses.

History

1. Wars cost a lot. They kill and destroy and waste resources but they also change the use of industry and technology.
2. Wars are costly exercises. They cause death and destruction and put resources to non-productive uses but they also promote industrial and technological change.

Materials Technology

1. We should obey the rules for being safe in the work shop.
2. It is important that people obey the safety regulations set down in the workshop.

Commentary

Spoken-like becomes Written-like	
Commerce	
we must remember	consideration must
many businesses fail	the failure of many businesses
History	
cost a lot	are costly exercises
and (they) kill	and death
they destroy	they cause destruction
and (they) waste resources	and put resources to non-productive uses
they change the use of industry and technology	industrial and technological change
Materials Technology	
we should obey the rules for being safe	It is important that people obey the safety regulations set down

6

Summary of stages

The generic structure or staging of arguments can be presented as:

Thesis ^ (Preview of arguments) ^ Argument(s) ^ Conclusion

The symbol ^ means 'followed by'.
Brackets () indicate an optional stage.

The generic structure or staging of discussions can be presented generally as:

Thesis ^ (Preview of Issues) ^ Argument(s) for ^ Argument(s) against ^ Recommendation

The symbol ^ means 'followed by'.
Brackets () indicate optional stages.

This generic structure can be further elaborated:

A. Thesis ^ Preview of Issue ^ Argument for and Elaboration ^ Argument for and Elaboration ^ Argument against and Elaboration ^Argument against and Elaboration ^ Recommendation

or

B. Thesis ^ Preview of Issue ^ Argument for and Elaboration ^ Argument against and Elaboration ^ Argument for and Elaboration ^ Argument against and Elaboration ^ Recommendation

Arguments and discussions share common language features:

- The participants are generalised; mostly they are abstract *(rules, business, wars)* although they can also be human *(technical drawing students, people).*
- Use of passive voice to depersonalise text. (Refer to the Glossary of Language Features in Module Two for an explanation of the passive voice.)
- Connectives of reason and result *(because, so)*. A logical line of argument is represented with sequencing connectives *(firstly, secondly)*.
- Use of technical, abstract terms *(business)*.
- Use of modality *(probably, must)* to soften a point of view or take a stand.
- Use of emotive words to sway the reader *(destruction, inadequacies)*.
- Mainly present tense with a mixture of verb types when presenting a point of view.

Rewrite Text 3 to make it sound more written-like. When you use noun groups, try to use Theme position (thematisation). For example:

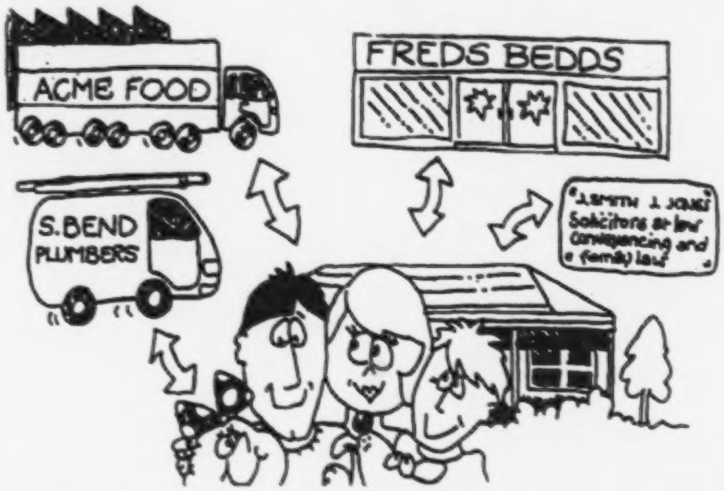
Starting a Business becomes 'The Establishment of a Business' (Nominalisation)

Why do businesses exist? become 'Reasons for the existence of businesses' (Nominalisation)

Starting a Business

Why do businesses exist?

We often hear the word business in our everyday lives. We hear of people who 'go into business', people who 'run a business', people who 'sell their business' or even people who 'go out of business'.



What then is a business? We may regard a business as an organisation which operates to satisfy people's wants. We already know that people have wants and in a commercial economy these wants are satisfied by specialisation and exchange. This means that we specialise in a particular occupation and earn money which we exchange for the goods and services we want. We rely on each other to produce these goods and services and distribute them to the people who want them. There is an important link therefore between producers (those who provide the goods and services) and consumers (those who use the goods and services). Businesses exist to help in the process of satisfying people's wants. Businesses exist to supply people with such things as food, clothing, housing, electrical goods, medical care, legal services, luxury goods and entertainment.

Commerce Two,
B. Parker, T. Clarke & P. Carter, 1988

8

Commentary

The process which follows is the transformation of Text 3 from a spoken-like to a written-like text.

Starting a business
The establishment of a business
(*nominalisation*)

Why do businesses exist?
Reasons for the existence of businesses
(nominalisation)

We often hear the word business in our everyday lives
The word business is commonly used
(*thematisation*)

We hear of people who 'go into business', people who 'run a business', people who 'sell their business' or even people who 'go out of business'.

People who go into business, run a business, sell
(*thematisation*)
their business, go out of business are often discussed.
(*thematisation*)

What then is a business?
Definition of a business
(*nominalisation*)

We may regard a business as an organisation which operates to satisfy people's wants.
A business is an organisation which operates to
(*Thematisation*) (*non-human participants*)
satisfy wants.

We already know that people have wants and in a commercial economy these wants are satisfied by specialisation and exchange.
These wants are satisfied in a commercial economy by
(*thematisation*)
specialisation and exchange.
(*nominalisation*)

This means that we specialise in a particular occupation and earn money which we exchange for the goods and services we want.
This specialisation in a particular occupation earns
(*thematisation, nominalisation*)
money which is exchanged for the goods and
(*passive voice*)
services which are wanted.

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We rely on each other to produce these goods and services and distribute them to the people who want them.
The members of a community rely on each other to
(*generalised participants*)
produce and distribute these goods and services

There is an important link therefore between producers (those who provide the goods and services) and consumers (those who use the goods and services).
thus creating an important link between producers
(*connecting device*)
(those who provide the goods and services) and consumers (those who use the goods and services).

Businesses exist to help in the process of satisfying people's wants. Businesses exist to supply people with such things as food, clothing, housing, electrical goods, medical care, legal services, luxury goods and entertainment.
Businesses exist to help in the satisfaction of wants
(*nominalisation*)
and supply of such things as food, clothing, housing, electrical goods, medical care, legal services, luxury goods and entertainment.

ACCESSING LEARNING

module seven

teaching/learning activity

overhead transparencies

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TASK 1

Look at these two definitions of conscription. How do the definitions differ? Would they be acceptable for inclusion in a History textbook?

WHAT IS BEING ASSUMED AND HOW DO YOU KNOW?

1. 'Conscription is compulsory enrolment in the armed services introduced by a country, wherever necessary, in order to win an armed conflict.'

2. 'Conscription is the forced enrolment of young people into the armed forces, instituted by the government, to fight in theatres of war, wherever deemed appropriate.'

2

TASK 2

Look at the following table of word choices in the two definitions.

How do they express the author's underlying assumptions?

Definition 1	Definition 2
Compulsory	forced
—	young people
armed services	armed forces
introduced	instituted
by a country	by the government
win	fight
armed conflict	theatres of war
necessary	deemed appropriate

As stated, texts are never neutral. They are influenced by the way the author views the world. This view is known as ideology.

> Ideology is used here in its most general sense, to indicate 'the set of ideas which arise from a given set of material interest' (Williams, 1976). To attend to the ideology of texts is therefore to be conscious of the way in which language is permeated with the values and presuppositions of its dominant users. Our view of the world is structured by the language we most often hear used to describe it — the reporting of news events on television or in the newspapers is one obvious example. Paradoxically, it is the dominant ideology which is the least conspicuous; and it is only when this set of assumptions is contested by other social groups with different interests that the word 'ideological' — used now in a disparaging sense ('blinded with foolish theories') — is likely to be heard. The goal is always to make ideology invisible, to sustain habits of language which make it 'natural', a matter of sheer 'commonsense', to subscribe to a particular version (or inversion) of the world.

Language in the National Curriculum, UK, 1992

4

Some of the specific skills involved in critical thinking are:

- distinguishing fact from opinion;
- determining reliability of a source;
- distinguishing relevant from irrelevant information;
- detecting bias and frame of reference;
- determining the strength of an argument;
- identifying equivocal & ambiguous statements;
- recognising logical inconsistencies; and
- identifying assumptions.

TASK 3

Look at the following primary source document, taken from a secondary History textbook, and examine how the speaker guides the listener through the language choices he makes.

Which words indicate that the speaker is openly stating his views?

Refer to the **Glossary of Language Features** for an explanation of the language features referred to in this unit.

This speech was made by Archbishop Dr Daniel Mannix in September 1916:

I hope and believe that peace can be secured without conscription. For conscription is a hateful thing... for myself, it will take a good deal to convince me that conscription in Australia would not cause more evil than it would avert. I honestly believe that Australia has done her full share and more, and that she cannot reasonably be expected to bear the financial strain and the drain upon her manhood that conscription would involve. If conscription were adopted I should expect to find later that many who are now its loudest advocates would be the first to rise up against the taxation necessary to redeem our obligations to the returned soldiers or to their widows or orphans or dependants in case the soldiers gave their lives on the battlefield. I think I can say that I have read most of the appeals that have been made for conscription in Australia. But in spite of these eloquent and impassioned appeals my common sense will not allow me to believe that the addition of 100,000 or 200,000 conscript Australians to the 15,000,000 of fighting men that the Allies have at their disposal could be a deciding factor or even a substantial factor in the issue of the war.

Federation to Furore, J.Johnson & R.Johnson, 1981

6

Aboriginal cultures did not survive in the face of European invasion. This was due in part to their ethic of territoriality, which placed more emphasis on defence than offence. Because of the strict adherence to this no social mechanisms existed for creating armies to fight the Europeans, who had an easy time tackling tribe after tribe. As well, tribes found it impossible to unite in the short time allowed. The Aborigines' emphasis on the necessity of stability and the European desire for expansions, progress and change inevitably clashed...

Primary Social Studies Sourcebook : Year 4
Queensland Department of Education, 1988

ACCESSING LEARNING

module seven
teaching/learning activity handouts

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TASK 3

Look at the primary source document below, taken from a secondary History textbook, and examine how the speaker guides the listener through the language choices he makes.

Which words indicate that the speaker is openly stating his views?

Refer back to the **Glossary of Language Features** in Module Two for an explanation of the Language Features referred to in this unit.

The Conscription Issue

Labor Prime Minister William Morris Hughes was a strong supporter of the war effort. After visiting England in 1916, Hughes realised just how serious the position was on the Western Front. The Australians had suffered heavy casualties there and now needed a higher enlistment rate to keep their divisions up to strength.

Enlistment had fallen off when the war dragged on into its second year; much of the initial enthusiasm faded as the heavy loss of life and the accounts of the soldiers' terrible suffering shook the idealised view of the war that many people had held. Many did not really believe in the war any longer.

Prime Minister Hughes wanted to introduce conscription but met with a great deal of opposition from within his own Labor Party. It was decided to put the issue to the people at a referendum.

Before the referendum was held (28 October 1916), the supporters of both sides — those for and those against conscription — tried to persuade the voters that their particular view was the right one.

Speakers, some eloquent and some not so eloquent, addressed hundreds of meetings, thousands of posters were pasted up in public places, advertisements and letters appeared in the newspapers.

It seemed that everyone had an opinion and voiced it; there were bitter quarrels among political opponents and discord among neighbours and friends. The referendum aroused all the fervour of a hard fought election campaign.

Federation to Furore, J. Johnson & R. Johnson, 1981

2

TASK 4

The Themes in the speech made by Archbishop Dr Daniel Mannix set a highly personalised reasonable tone. Underline the Themes in the text below. What tone do they create?

This speech was made by Archbishop Dr Daniel Mannix in September 1916:

I hope and believe that peace can be secured without conscription. For conscription is a hateful thing... for myself, it will take a good deal to convince me that conscription in Australia would not cause more evil than it would avert. I honestly believe that Australia has done her full share and more, and that she cannot reasonably be expected to bear the financial strain and the drain upon her manhood that conscription would involve. If conscription were adopted I should expect to find later that many who are now its loudest advocates would be the first to rise up against the taxation necessary to redeem our obligations to the returned soldiers or to their widows or orphans or dependants in case the soldiers gave their lives on the battlefield. I think I can say that I have read most of the appeals that have been made for conscription in Australia. But in spite of these eloquent and impassioned appeals my common sense will not allow me to believe that the addition of 100,000 or 200,000 conscript Australians to the 15,000,000 of fighting men that the Allies have at their disposal could be a deciding factor or even a substantial factor in the issue of the war.

Federation to Furore, J. Johnson & R. Johnson, 1981

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TASK 5

Look at paragraph 1 of the *Conscription Issue*. Underline words or phrases in the first paragraph you think position the reader towards a positive view of conscription.

RESOURCE SHEET

Italics = Themes
Underline = Positive words/phrases

The Conscription Issue

Labor Prime Minister William Morris Hughes was a strong supporter of the war effort. *After visiting England in 1916*, Hughes realised just how serious the position was on the Western Front. *The Australians* had suffered heavy casualties there and now needed a higher enlistment rate to keep their divisions up to strength.

Enlistment had fallen off when the war dragged on into its second year; *much of the initial enthusiasm* faded as the heavy loss of life and the accounts of the soldiers' terrible suffering shook the idealised view of the war that many people had held. *Many* did not really believe in the war any longer.

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It seemed that everyone had an opinion and voiced it; *there* were bitter quarrels among political opponents and discord among neighbours and friends. *The referendum* aroused all the fervour of a hard fought election campaign.

Federation to Furore, J. Johnson & R. Johnson
1981, p 68–9

4

TASK 6

Examine the following text, bearing in mind these questions:

How is the problem of the invasion characterised here?

To whom does the text attribute this problem?

> Aboriginal cultures...did not survive in the face of European invasion. This was due in part to their ethic of territoriality, which placed more emphasis on defence than on offence. Because of the strict adherence to this, no social mechanisms existed for creating armies to fight the Europeans, who had an easy time tackling tribe after tribe. As well, tribes found it impossible to unite in the short time allowed. The Aborigines' emphasis on the necessity of stability and the European desire for expansion, progress and change inevitably clashed...
>
> *Primary Social Studies Source Book: Year 4*, Queensland Department of Education, 1988

TASK 7

1. Underline all the verbs in the text from Task 6. (Refer to Introduction to a functional view of language (Module Two)

   They are mostly what kind of verb?
   Why would this be so?

2. Who is acting most of the verbs?
3. Circle words which present a definite tone.
4. What effect do these language choices create?

> Aboriginal cultures did not survive in the face of European invasion. This was due in part to their ethic of territoriality, which placed more emphasis on defence than offence. Because of the strict adherence to this no social mechanisms existed for creating armies to fight the Europeans, who had an easy time tackling tribe after tribe. As well, tribes found it impossible to unite in the short time allowed. The Aborigines' emphasis on the necessity of stability and the European desire for expansions, progress and change inevitably clashed...
>
> *Primary Social Studies Sourcebook : Year 4,*
> Queensland Department of Education, 1988

DECONSTRUCTION PROFORMA

SEGMENT OF TEACHING/ LEARNING CYCLE	DESCRIPTION OF ACTIVITY	PURPOSE OF ACTIVITY	ALTERNATIVE OR ADDITIONAL ACTIVITIES

GEOGRAPHY CYCLE DECONSTRUCTION

SEGMENT OF TEACHING/ LEARNING CYCLE	DESCRIPTION OF ACTIVITY	PURPOSE OF ACTIVITY	ALTERNATIVE OR ADDITIONAL ACTIVITIES
Preparing the Context	Questions about argument.	Raise schemata about use of language in the Challenging the World genres. No content preparation is needed because students have been engaged in the topic for some time. (Informal assessment.)	Group discussion to raise issues.
Developing the Context	Jigsaw — introduction is read.	Prepare for jigsaw reading activity. Preparation of technical vocabulary needed for jigsaw.	Worksheet activity on definitions.
	Definitions matching activity.	Developing the reading strategies of looking for vocabulary links (lexical cohesion). (Peer assessment.)	Other reading activities e.g. cloze, comprehension questions.
	Jigsaw reading in first grouping and answering task.	Gain content control over part of the reading. (Informal assessment.)	
	Jigsaw reading in second grouping and answering final task.	Share information for later use in the Teacher-led Construction. (Informal assessment.)	
Modelling	Deconstruction of model for stages.	Explore generic structure of argument.	Sequencing of stages of model in strips.
	Ordering modality words on OHT strips.	Compare use of modality words to make meaning precise	

cont.

GEOGRAPHY CYCLE DECONSTRUCTION cont.

SEGMENT OF TEACHING/ LEARNING CYCLE	DESCRIPTION OF ACTIVITY	PURPOSE OF ACTIVITY	ALTERNATIVE OR ADDITIONAL ACTIVITIES
	Cline of temporal connectives.	Extend student vocabulary.	Cloze emotive words.
	Emotive language table.	Demonstrate one aspect of critical literacy.	
	Circle emotive language in the model.	Explore the position adopted by the writer in the text. (Informal assessment.)	
Teacher-led Construction	Examine questions from model and teacher-led construction.	Draw distinction between argument and discussion genres.	
	Develop two alternative schematic structures for discussion.	Prepare a schematic structure for use in the teacher-led construction.	
	Guide students in the writing of the teacher-led construction (Version 1.)	Use the appropriate schematic structure to order the information in the answer. (Informal assessment.)	
	Guide students in rewriting (Version 2)	Incorporate the language features highlighted in the modelling phase to produce a more appropriate text.	
Student-led Construction	Set revision essay.	Draw together all the content of the unit of work.	

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ACCESSING LEARNING

module eight

LANGUAGE AND LITERACY DEVELOPMENT IN KEY LEARNING AREAS

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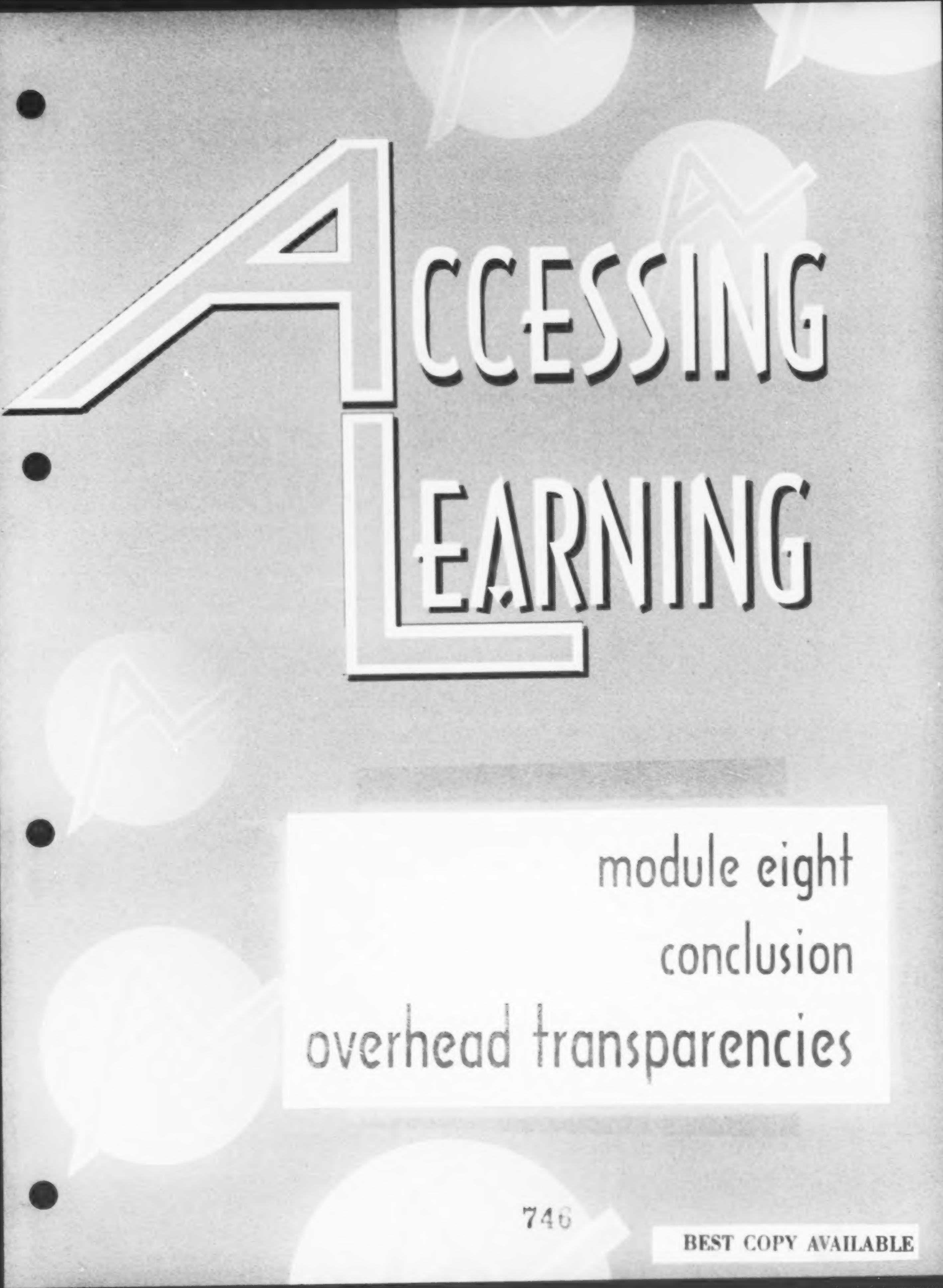

ACCESSING LEARNING

module eight
conclusion
overhead transparencies

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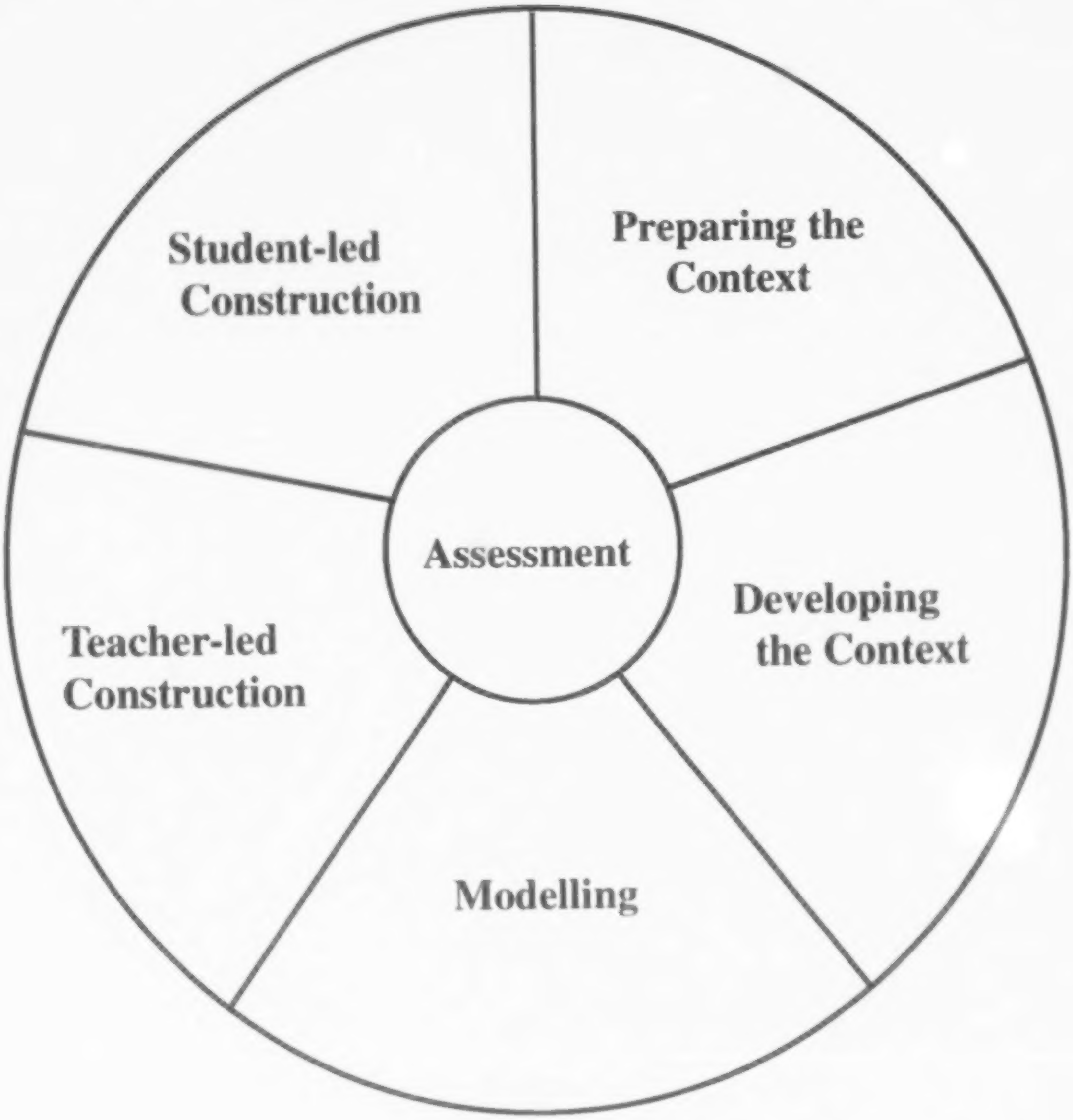


Assessment

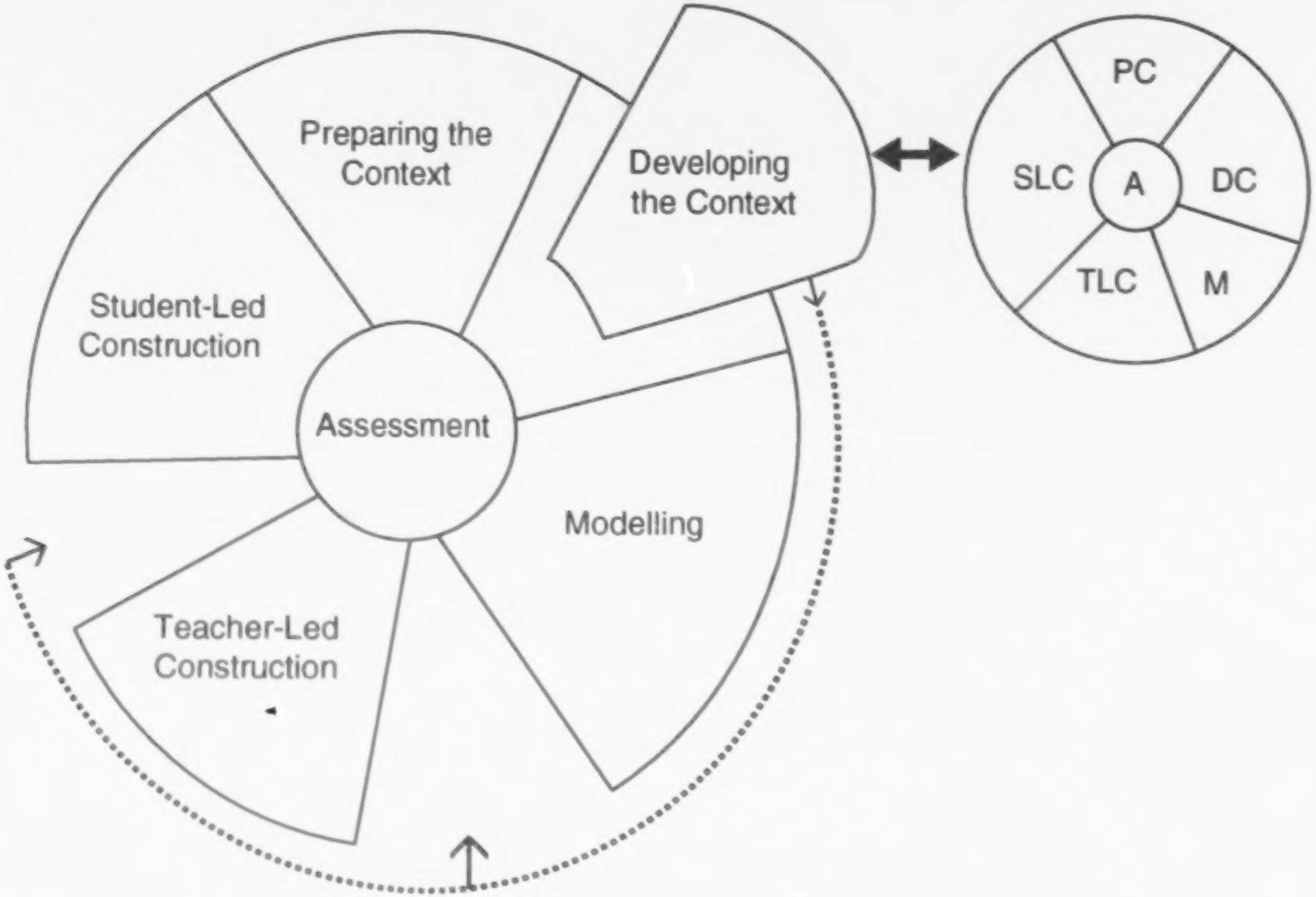
Preparing the Context

Developing the Context

Modelling

Teacher-led Construction

Student-led Construction

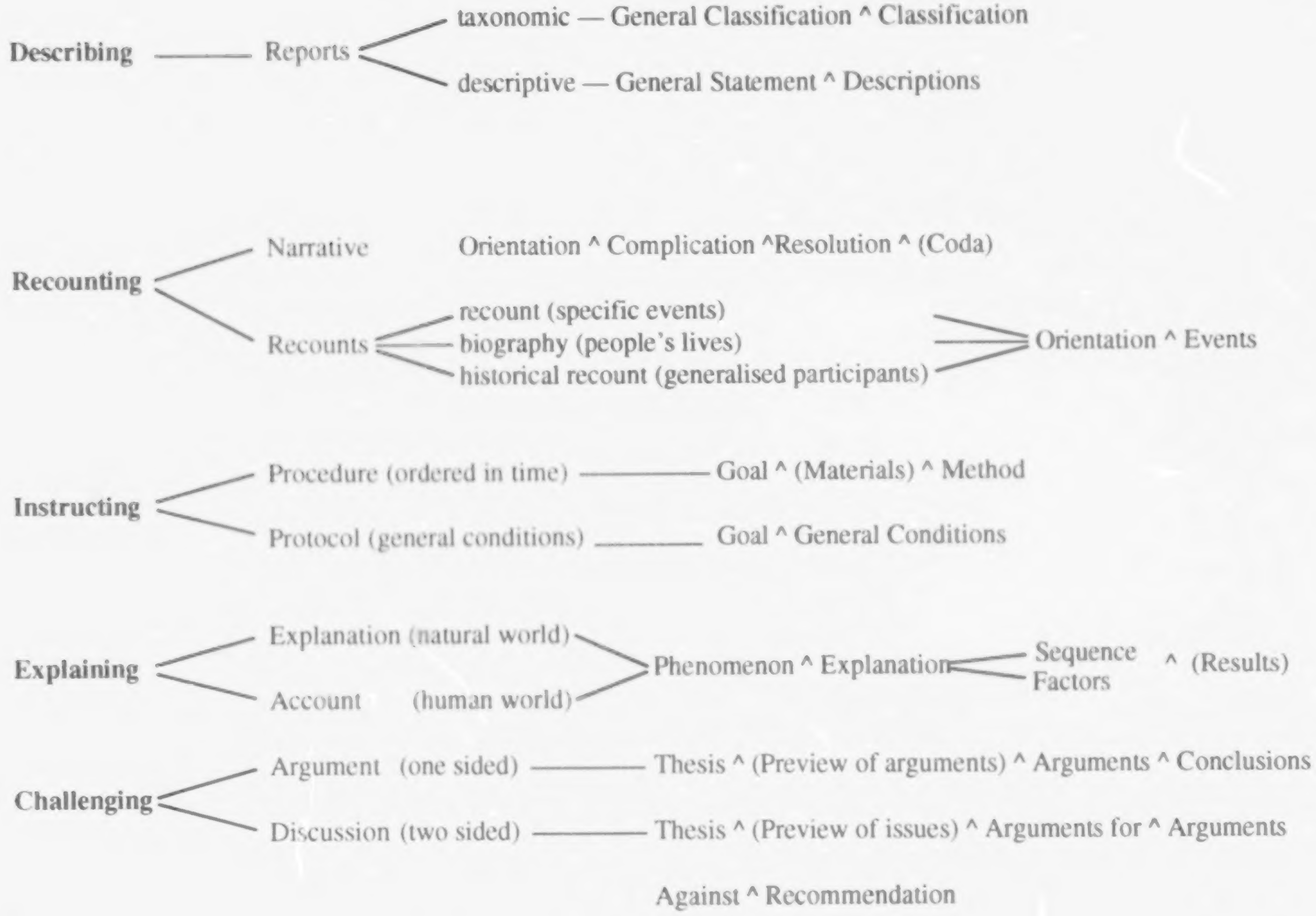

Preparing the Context
Developing the Context
Student-Led Construction
Assessment
Modelling
Teacher-Led Construction
PC
SLC
A
DC
TLC
M

TASK 2

As a means of revising the relationship between the macro-functions and their corresponding genres and stages, fill in the taxonomy below. The first has been completed for you.

- **Describing** — Reports
  - taxonomic — General Classification ^ Classification
  - descriptive — General Statement ^ Descriptions
- **Recounting**
  - Narrative
  - Recounts
- **Instructing**
- **Explaining**
- **Challenging**

COMPLETED MACRO-FUNCTION TAXONOMIES



Describing — Reports
- taxonomic — General Classification ^ Classification
- descriptive — General Statement ^ Descriptions

Recounting
- Narrative — Orientation ^ Complication ^Resolution ^ (Coda)
- Recounts
  - recount (specific events)
  - biography (people's lives)
  - historical recount (generalised participants)
  - — Orientation ^ Events

Instructing
- Procedure (ordered in time) — Goal ^ (Materials) ^ Method
- Protocol (general conditions) — Goal ^ General Conditions

Explaining
- Explanation (natural world)
- Account (human world)
- — Phenomenon ^ Explanation — Sequence / Factors ^ (Results)

Challenging
- Argument (one sided) — Thesis ^ (Preview of arguments) ^ Arguments ^ Conclusions
- Discussion (two sided) — Thesis ^ (Preview of issues) ^ Arguments for ^ Arguments Against ^ Recommendation

TASK 3

The text *Plastics* was written by a classroom teacher for a Year 9 Geography class. It is a synthesis of information from a variety of interest group publications. The teacher has tried to draw together in a manageable form all the relevant information and uses to do with plastics.

The text is typical of information presented to students in teacher-prepared materials or in textbooks. It is a macro-genre consisting of 5 main sections:

- a report;
- two accounts; and
- two arguments.

Read the text. Identify the five sections and attempt to label each as one of the genres listed above.

Commentary

The sections of the *Plastics* text and their genres are:

Types of plastic — a report

The advantages of plastic — an argument

The problems of plastic — an argument

The management of plastic — an account

The difficulties of managing plastic waste — an account

Task 4

What is the purpose of each of these genres in the context of the whole text? In other words, why has each section been included?

Task 5

The following essay question taken from a History text book requires the students to use the resources of several genres in their answer and to identify these genres and consider why they are combined in this way.

'Write an essay, about 1 ½ pages in length, about trade with Japan. Explain Japan–Australia trade flows and relationships. Consider the importance of this relationship to Australia and the effect, on Australians, of greatly reduced orders from Japan. Advise some of the actions that could be taken in Australia to try to increase the volume of exports Japan buys.'

Australia's Relations with Asia,
P. White and P. Young, 1989

Task 6

Consider again the quotes from Module 1.

Do you feel more confident in your ability to address the language issues raised in these comments now that you have completed *Accessing Learning*?

Teacher/*Student*

comment – Much clearer, Mohummad.
response – *Much clearer than what? Is my handwriting improving?*

comment – 5/10 Your argument is not well constructed, Bruce.
response – *So what is good construction?*

comment – C plus Cathy, your writing is too informal.
response – *But I don't know any other way to write!*

comment – 4/10 Answer the question.
response – *It doesn't matter what the questions says, I just write everything I know anyway.*

comment – This isn't good essay style.
response – *I write this way in English and it's OK so what's wrong with it for history.*

comment – 6/10 Try harder, Josephine.
response – *How? You've never shown us.*

comment – You have missed the point in some places, Luke.
response – *Which places?*

comment – B plus Good effort, Ming Lee.
response – *But why is it different to the one I did last time? I only got a C for that.*

comment – Your ideas are a bit confusing. 6/10
response – *Yeah, well so was the question!*

comment – 7/10 Be more careful, Kim.
response – *Careful of what?*

ACCESSING LEARNING

module eight
conclusion
handouts

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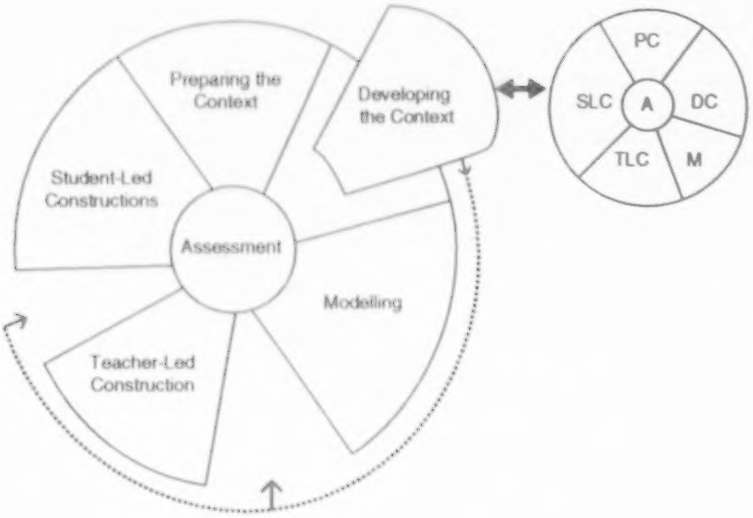
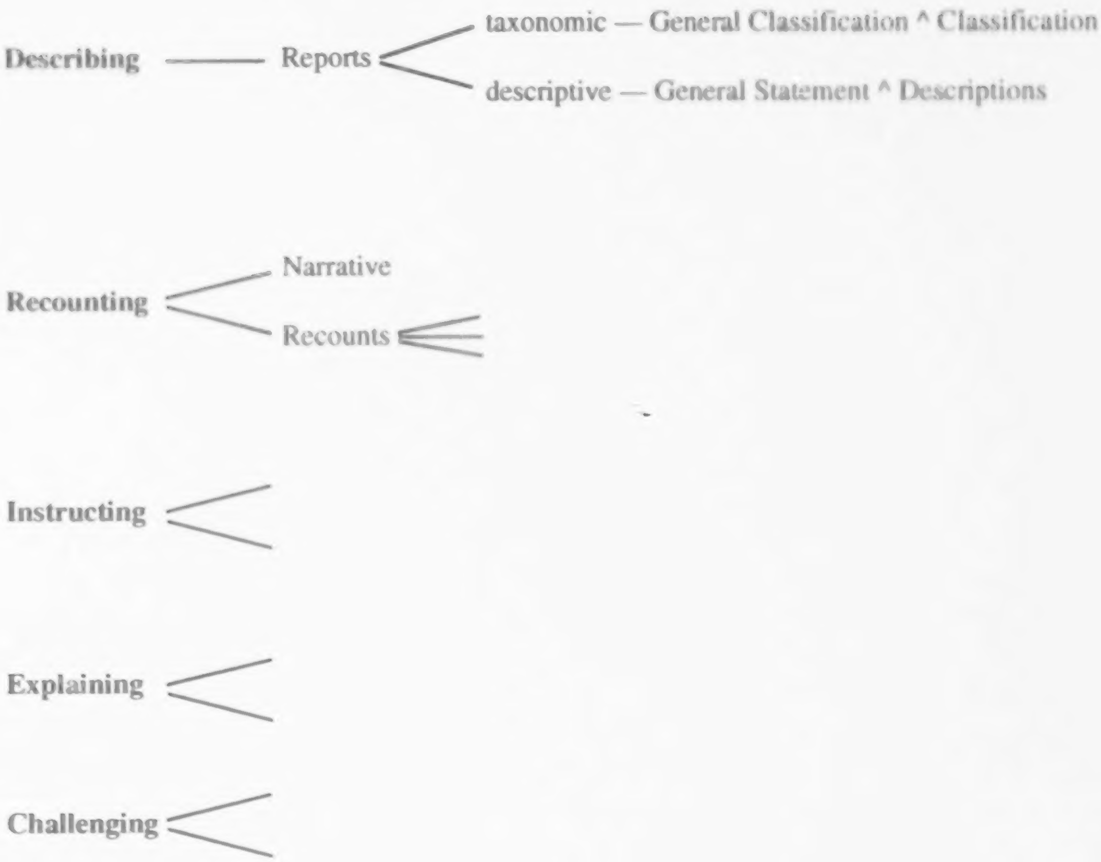

Preparing the Context
Developing the Context
Student-Led Constructions
Assessment
Modelling
Teacher-Led Construction
PC
SLC
A
DC
TLC
M

TASK 1

Revisit the complete Classroom Unit for your subject area. Using the overview pages, locate the occasions when the teaching/learning cycle was used in its extended form.

TASK 2 - Complete the taxonomies



Describing — Reports

taxonomic — General Classification ^ Classification

descriptive — General Statement ^ Descriptions

Recounting

Narrative

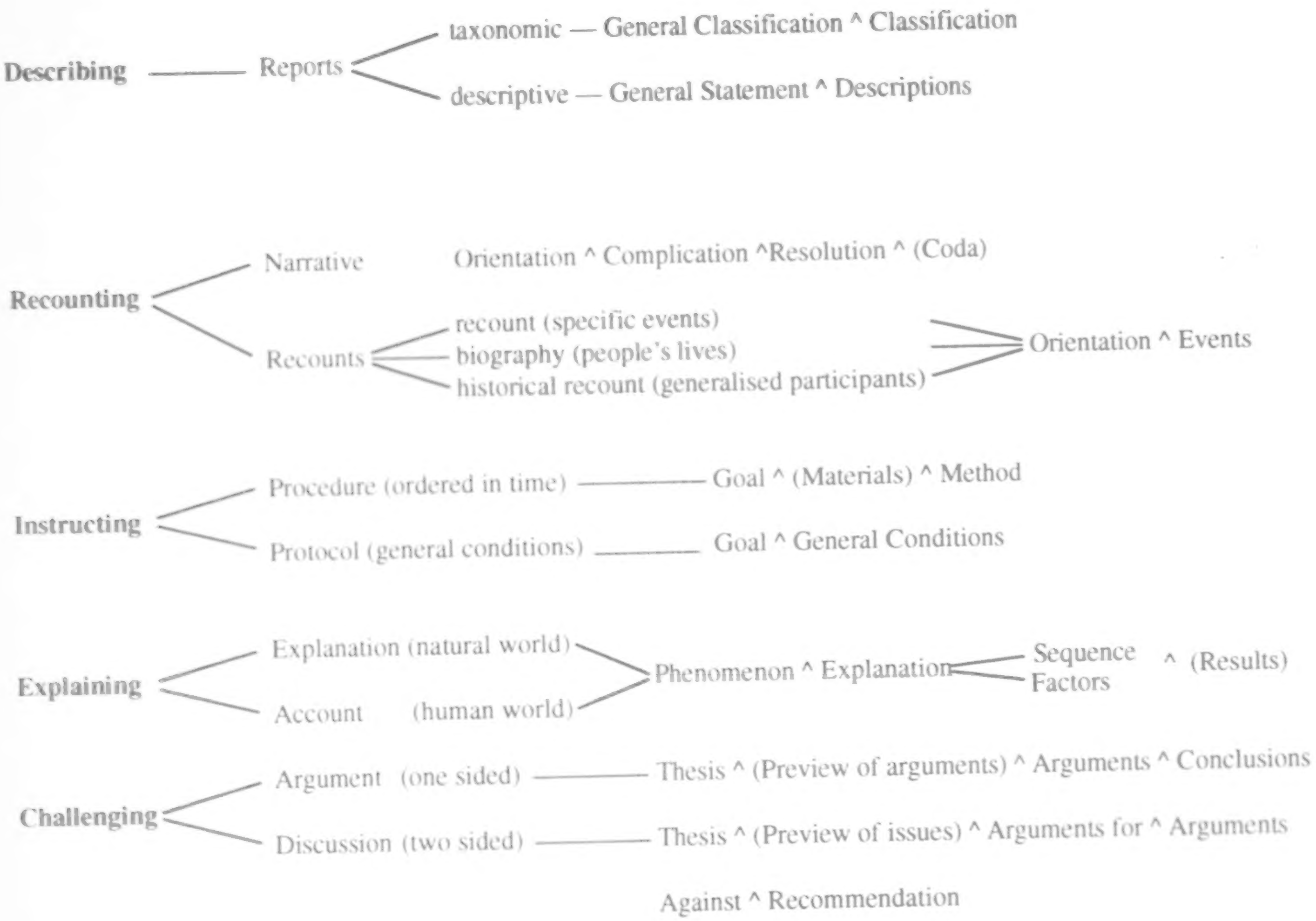
Recounts

Instructing

Explaining

Challenging

COMPLETED MACRO-FUNCTION TAXONOMIES


Describing
Reports
taxonomic — General Classification ^ Classification
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Recounting
Narrative
Orientation ^ Complication ^Resolution ^ (Coda)
Recounts
recount (specific events)
biography (people's lives)
historical recount (generalised participants)
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Procedure (ordered in time)
Goal ^ (Materials) ^ Method
Protocol (general conditions)
Goal ^ General Conditions
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Explanation (natural world)
Account (human world)
Phenomenon ^ Explanation
Sequence
Factors
^ (Results)
Challenging
Argument (one sided)
Thesis ^ (Preview of arguments) ^ Arguments ^ Conclusions
Discussion (two sided)
Thesis ^ (Preview of issues) ^ Arguments for ^ Arguments Against ^ Recommendation

4

PLASTICS

If you were asked to close your eyes and imagine and then list the contents of your local rubbish dump many of you would have plastic products close to the top of your list. While it is true that Australians use approximately one million tonnes of plastics per annum, (that's about 74 kilograms per person), plastic goods make up only 10% of landfill refuse. Paper and paper products actually make up a huge 40% – 50% of the waste materials found in any refuse dump. Despite this fact, plastics are blamed for polluting our environment. Is their bad reputation justified?

Types of Plastics

There are more than 50 different types of plastics. Some of the most commonly used plastics are:

(a) **PE Polyethylene** (used for shrink wrapping on trays of packaged goods eg meat)

(b) **PET Polyethylene terephthalate** (used for soft drink bottles)

(c) **HDPE High Density Polyethylene** (used for plastic milk bottles)

(d) **PP Polypropylene** (used for car battery covers)

(e) **PS Polystyrene** (used for refrigerator liners)

(f) **PVC Polyvinyl chloride** more commonly called vinyl (used for credit cards).

Plastics are made mainly from oil, natural gas and coal.

The advantages of plastic

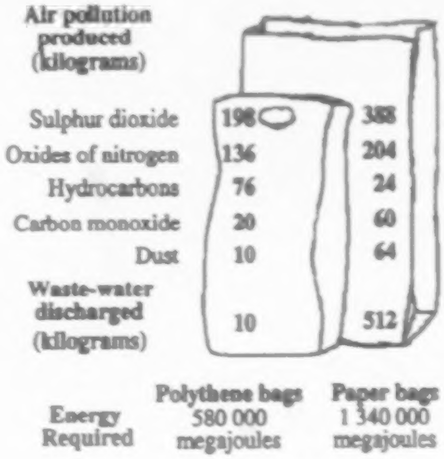
In today's society plastics can be found everywhere. Probably your school bag, drink container and lunch box are all made from plastics. Perhaps the chair you are sitting on is plastic. Even the clothing you are wearing could contain plastics in some form. Why has the use of plastics become so widespread?

Plastics are convenient and practical. They are light in weight, good electrical insulators, resistant to moisture and chemicals and can be moulded into finished products which are light and strong. Plastics are a good packaging material. They protect products, are lighter, take up less space and are easier to transport than other types of packaging.

They are also relatively cheap to produce. It has been estimated that the cost of packaging any average product would increase by 200% if plastics were not used.

The manufacture of plastics is energy efficient when compared to some other materials. It takes less energy to make a PET drink bottle than a returnable glass bottle, less energy to make plastic pipe than steel pipe and, as the illustration shows, less energy to make a polyethylene shopping bag than a paper bag. Just 2% of the oil and natural gas consumed in Australia is used for the manufacture of plastics.

The manufacture of plastic products causes less pollution than the manufacture and use of some other products. Compare the air pollution caused by the manufacture of plastic and paper carrying bags as shown in the illustration. Compare too, the manufacture and use of plastic (HDPE) milk containers with the manufacture and use of glass or cardboard containers. Plastic causes less than one third the amount of carbon dioxide of cardboard containers, and less than half caused by glass, even if the glass is recycled ten times. (Carbon dioxide is a gas which is a major contributor to the greenhouse effect.) In addition, no CFCs (chlorofluorocarbons which damage the earth's ozone layer) are produced in the manufacture of plastic containers. CFCs are produced however when some foam plastics are manufactured.



The problems of plastic

Plastics are mainly made from a non-renewable energy source — oil, natural gas and coal. These resources will not last forever, and cannot be replaced. We need to conserve our non-renewable resources, but because plastic is so convenient our society uses large amounts of it. For example the average family uses 2000 plastic bags per year.

The biggest problem associated with plastic is litter. Because our society uses so much plastic, and because plastics do not break down easily, the litter can cause problems for a very long time. One problem with litter is that it is ugly and spoils the environment.

A more serious problem is the effect it has on the animals in our environment. This can best be seen in the marine environment.

A major problem is that manufactured plastics, such as plastic drink containers and plastic bags, are thrown from shipping vessels and some of this material finds its way into the stomachs of sea creatures. Pygmy sperm whales and rough-toothed dolphins are just two marine animals that have been found with plastic sheeting or plastic bags in their stomachs. A starving leatherback turtle was found with a ball of plastic three metres wide and four metres long blocking its intestines. Fifteen per cent of the world's 280 species of sea birds are known to have ingested, that is swallowed, plastic. Some of these animals starve to death when their stomachs become blocked, while others become weak and ill. Friends of the Earth, an environment group, say that 100,000 marine animals die every year from swallowing plastic wastes.

Further problems have been caused by the new plastic fishing nets now in use throughout the world. These nets are more buoyant and therefore stay on or near the surface of the water. They do not disintegrate (that is break up) as the old hemp, cotton or flax nets did. As well, they are nearly invisible under water. Sea breeding animals such as birds, seals and turtles get caught in the plastic nets and drown. In 1980, for example, 2,000 sea turtles drowned off the coast of the USA when they became tangled in nets used for shrimp trawling. Some government officials estimate that 50,000 northern fur seals die each year in the North Pacific as a result of entanglement in fishing gear.

Nets, empty plastic bottles, plastic film, plastic pipes and other materials dumped in our rivers and streams also cause problems for land animals and birds as well as sea creatures. Small animals and birds, such as pelicans, have starved after trapping their bills in the plastic yokes used to package six packs of beer and soft drink. This has lead to some states in the United States of America (USA) banning their use.

The problems of plastics lie with the fact that they are made from non-renewable energy sources, they are not biodegradable (that is they do not break down) and that human beings throw away their rubbish which then finds its way into our oceans, lakes and streams. Have you ever thought about where the plastic wrapping on your sandwiches ends up when you leave it on the beach?

The management of plastic wastes

Some steps are already being taken to recycle plastics. A major chemical company and a soft drink manufacturer in the USA have recently announced plans to introduce a plastic soft drink bottle, made from a blend of recycled plastics, onto the market early in 1992. There are now a number of plants which recycle HDPE milk containers. A plant in Victoria is not only recycling the old bottles, it is able to produce these new milk containers for a price similar to the cost of using new materials. Plants have been established in Australia to recycle PET soft drink containers. They are recycled into products such as windsurfers, plastic paints and filling for cold weather clothing. In France PVC used in the manufacture of mineral water bottles is being used in trials to produce underground drainage pipes for the mains water supply. Smorgon Plastics Recycling, a company in Victoria, is using recycled plastic to make a product called Syntal which is a similar to wood. It can be used to make roadside posts, park benches and even walls. The best thing about it is that it can be made from a mixture of all kinds of plastics, which means that plastics do not need to be sorted first.

Those plastics that are not able to be recycled are disposed of in land fill (or rubbish tips). Because plastic is light and can easily be crushed, it takes up less space than other materials such as cardboard or glass. Only 10% of the waste in landfill is plastic compared to over 50% of paper waste. While plastics do not breakdown or degrade in the ground, they do not pollute the ground or water ways as some rubbish can.

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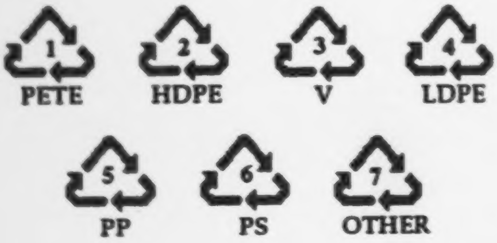
Work is now being done to develop degradable plastics; that is plastics that will break down in either water or sunlight. These are especially suitable for use in agriculture for things such as twine for tying hay bales and for bird netting. At sea they could be used for biodegradable fishing nets.

Japan and some European countries dispose of their plastic wastes through incineration (burning). The energy produced when plastics are burnt on a large scale is used to generate steam, hot water and electricity.

Problems of managing plastic waste

Perhaps the largest problem facing recyclers of plastics is the cost involved. Recycled plastics usually cost between two and five times as much as new materials. This is because the plastics have to be collected, sorted, and cleaned before they can be re-used. Labels, lids, sticky tape and price tags must also be removed.

Another difficulty is that plastics must be separated into categories before they can be recycled. This means, for example, that soft plastic carry bags, must have their handles removed before they can be recycled. The Plastics Industry Association in Australia has introduced a voluntary coding system for plastics, identifying them by resin type. If you look on the bottom of most of your plastic containers you'll probably find one of these symbols :



It is hoped that this will speed up the sorting process. However the labelling is often difficult to read and people need to be educated about this system.

A method of collection needs to be provided for recycling, either through kerbside collection of rubbish or by providing central depots. It means separate collection bins for the different types of plastic. While it is possible to collect the larger and regularly used plastic items, such as plastic drink bottles, it is more difficult to collect the smaller items such as plastic food wrap.

Often it is not possible to recycle plastics. Many places do not have recycling plants and the cost of transporting the used plastics is high. In South Australia for example PET bottles are shredded for use as land-fill at the Wingfield dump because no recycling plant exists.

Plastics buried in land fill do not degrade. So while it might be argued that they take up less space, they will stay there indefinitely.

If plastics are incinerated highly toxic (poisonous) gases can be given off. Incineration also has the disadvantage of releasing dioxides into the atmosphere and so increasing the dangers from the Greenhouse effect.

Conclusion

When all factors are considered it is difficult to say whether the benefits of plastic outweigh the disadvantages. What do you think?

ACCESSING LEARNING

geography part two
instructing

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PART TWO OVERVIEW - INSTRUCTING

Students write a procedure for making a compost heap.

	Content and Tasks	**Assessment**
Preparing the Context	Teacher explores the purpose of procedures.	Informal assessment
Developing the Context	*Recycling*—matching definitions *Recycling*—jigsaw activity on reasons, uses and materials for recycling *Composting*—sequencing and three level comprehension	Peer assessment in jigsaw activity of understanding of content
Modelling	Study of a model procedure: *How to start a recyling program at school*	Informal assessment of students' understanding of concept of stages, ability to break text into stages and recognition of genre-appropriate language
Teacher-led Construction	Teacher and students write a procedure for making a compost heap.	Informal assessment for this task
Student-led Construction	Students write protocols outlining steps for an individual to help minimise packaging pollution.	Formal assesment of the protocols.
Resource Sheet	Activity sheets and resource sheets are grouped as Resource Sheets at the end of each Part. They are referred to by number in the text.	

PART TWO - INSTRUCTING

PREPARING THE CONTEXT

The teacher discusses the uses of a procedure and explains that a procedure is a way of organising a process or task in a sequential order:

- steps involved in enrolling at school; and
- steps involved in getting a library card.

DEVELOPING THE CONTEXT

The students read Resource Sheet 1: *Recycling* and complete a language activity matching words and definitions. Cut text into words and definitions and have students in pairs match them. Resource Sheet 2 offers background information on recycling.

Module Three: Teaching/Learning Activity: Jigsaw provides details on the jigsaw procedure. The teacher organises the students to read Resource Sheets 2A – C: *Recycling/Why Recycle?/Uses for Recycled Materials* as a jigsaw, using the focus questions for each group of students, and the final task as given below.

Final Task

You often hear people make these remarks:

- 'I can't recycle because I don't really get enough things to recycle.'
- 'Plastic doesn't need to be recycled because we can always make more.'

From your reading, what response would you make to them?
Be prepared to share your group response with the rest of the class.

The whole of Resource Sheet 3 is used for a True/False comprehension (Resource Sheet 4) which focuses on student understanding of a text at literal and inferential levels.

MODELLING

The teacher shows an OHT of a model procedure, *How to start a recycling program at school* (Resource Sheet 5), and deconstructs the stages (Resource Sheet 6). Then students complete a cloze passage which focuses attention on placing material processes (action verbs) in the theme (first) position in a procedure or protocol (Resource Sheet 7).

TEACHER-LED CONSTRUCTION

Together, the teacher and students construct a procedure for making a compost heap based on their understanding of the reading: *Composting*.

Version 1 **correct staging**	**Version 2** **correct staging and appropriate language**
Making a compost heap	How to make a compost heap
When you make a compost heap have to decide	Decide whether...

Extended examples of Versions 1 and 2 appear on Resource Sheets 8 and 9.

STUDENT-LED CONSTRUCTION

The students write a protocol outlining steps for an individual to help minimise packaging pollution.

The teacher discusses with students and reinforces that procedure and protocol are identical in their stages and language, but that protocols are not time sequenced.

An example of a student-led construction, *What You Can Do*, appears on Resource Sheet 10.

RESOURCE SHEET 1

Reading

Recycling

Recycling is putting back into use products or materials that have completed their original function. The term 'recycling' often refers to a wide range of activities such as collecting, sorting, transporting and re-processing previously used items.

Items can be recycled in three main ways:

- RE-USE. This is when an item is used again without having to change its original shape. It may be a simple case of cleaning and repairing before being put back into use. An example of this is the washing and refilling of bottles.
- RECLAIM. This is the extraction of some useful part of a used item in a way that usually totally destroys the item in order to take out the useful part. An example of this is to burn waste paper for fuel, releasing its heat energy but destroying the original material.
- RE-MAKE. This is the process by which used material is re-moulded or re-formed into a 'brand-new' product. This is the most complete form of recycling as it is often the method used to make identical new items from old waste items. A good example of this is the re-melting of aluminium cans to produce new aluminium cans. This is sometimes referred to as re-processing or recycling.

Source: *Learning About Recycling,*
Peter Dent, Keep Australia Beautiful

RESOURCE SHEET 2

Teacher Background Notes

RECYCLING CHART

Recyclable material	RE-USE	RECLAIM	RE-MAKE
ALUMINIUM CANS & TRAYS	Plant pots	Paint base chemicals	Cans Aluminium castings
ENGINE OIL	Filter and re-use	Fuel Weed killer Fence stain	Re-refined oil
FOOD PRODUCTS	Leftover meal Pet food	Methane gas Fertiliser Compost	Stock food compounds
GLASS CONTAINERS	Re-fill	Road making material Ornaments	Bottles and jars
PAPER	Use blank side	Home insulation Fuel Papier-mache Compost	Paper Cardboard
PLASTIC ICE CREAM TUBS	General purpose container	Paint base Chemicals	Plastic sheeting Plastic mouldings
RUBBER TYRES	Retread tyres Play equipment	Fuel Mats	Floor surfacing
STEEL CAR BODIES	Use parts	Artificial reefs Ballast	Steel products
TIMBER	Second-hand timber	Fuel Woodchips Compost	Machine to smaller size

Source: *Learning About Recycling*,
Peter Dent, Keep Australia Beautiful

RESOURCE SHEET 2A: Jigsaw Part A

Focus question: What can be recycled?

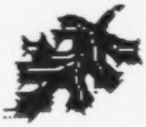
Recycling

Recycling occurs when products which have already been used (such as glass or newspapers) are used as the raw material for an entirely new product.

What can be recycled?

Glass, paper, cardboard cartons, aluminium, steel, plastic PET* bottles and oil can be recycled. Can you think of anything else?

When food scraps and garden clippings are thrown onto a compost heap they break down into mulch. This can be used to improve the soil in your garden. Is this recycling? Make a list of all the things around your home that you can recycle.



PET* bottles can be ground into flakes. These flakes are used in making other products such as windsurfers and plastic paints, and as flock fill for cold weather clothing and toys.

Source: *State Pollution Control Commission NSW*

RESOURCE SHEET 2B: Jigsaw Part B

Focus Question: Why should we recycle?

Why recycle?

1. **We save energy and natural resources.**
If something is used only once, a lot of energy is wasted. For example, the energy needed to make the metal for one aluminium can is the same as that needed to recycle twenty cans. Our natural resources will last longer if we recycle used things instead of using the raw materials. Each tonne of recycled paper saves half a hectare of usable trees.

2. **Rubbish collection costs are kept down.**
Recycling can easily reduce household rubbish by about one third. This halves the collection costs.

3. **Pollution.**
Pollution of air, water and land at factories and tips can be reduced.

4. **Tipping space is saved.**
If ‘rubbish’ is recycled then tipping space can be reserved for rubbish that can’t be recycled.

5. **Extra jobs are created.**
People are needed to collect goods for recycling, and to work in industries which use recycled materials. The sale of recyclable goods can earn money for school, clubs and charities.

Source: *State Pollution Control Commission NSW*

RESOURCE SHEET 2C

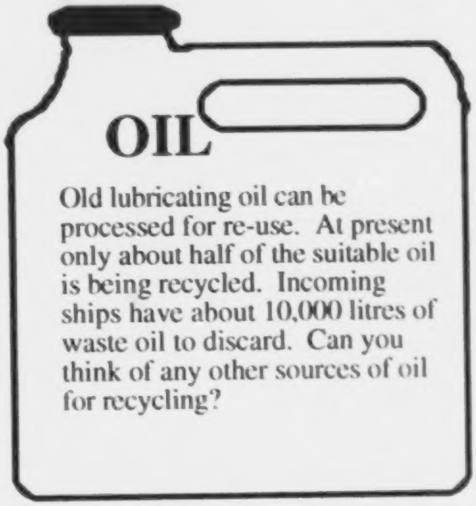
Jigsaw Part C

Focus Question: What are some uses for recycled materials?

Uses for recycled materials

There are many uses for the products of recycled glass, iron and aluminium. All that is collected, and more, can be used! Many other things can be recycled, but if recycling is to continue and grow, more uses for recycled paper, plastic and oil need to be found.

So start thinking and inventing!



OIL

Old lubricating oil can be processed for re-use. At present only about half of the suitable oil is being recycled. Incoming ships have about 10,000 litres of waste oil to discard. Can you think of any other sources of oil for recycling?

RECYCLE

Paper collected for recycling is mainly used for making cardboard cartons and boxes. To recycle paper, many chemicals and lots of water are needed. This water becomes polluted and then needs to be treated before it can be pumped into the river or sea. If recycling of paper is to continue, industries need to be encouraged to use more recycled paper.

Many people do not know that PET * bottles can be recycled. This is a big problem. PET* bottles are light and easy to throw out and many people think they are useless, but they should be recycled.

Source: *State Pollution Control Commission NSW*

Composting

What is Compost?

Compost is partially decomposed organic matter. It is produced in the natural environment from decaying leaves and litter on the forest floor. In the home garden we can achieve the same end result more quickly by building a compost heap. Over time, further decomposition of compost and recombination with clay, minerals and various organic molecules, will produce humus. Humus is an essential component of all soil which takes aeons to form. Adequate levels of organic matter — compost or humus — are essential if we are to conserve our soil. Conserving our soil is critical to the preservation of habitat for our flora and fauna.

What is Compost?

Composting is a biological decay process which converts organic wastes into a crumbly, sweet-smelling earth-like substance.

The micro-organisms (bacteria, fungi, etc.) which produce compost need oxygen from the air, nitrogen and trace elements from the raw materials, water, and a little time to do the job.

If the compost heap is large enough, and if the conditions in the heap allow the micro-organisms to thrive, then the composting process will be rapid.

The temperature in the middle of the heap will rise to about 60 degrees Celsius. The waste materials begin to break down. Complex proteins are formed and carbon dioxide and water are lost to the atmosphere. As the decay process continues the compost heap will shrink to about one third of its original size.

Finally, the temperature cools and earthworms invade the heap. The compost is ready when there are no recognisable bits of the original material. It will be fine-to-crumbly in structure, almost black in colour and will have a good earthy smell.

Not all compost heaps are quick to decompose and they don't all generate a lot of heat. Efficient composting is performed by aerobic micro-organisms (those which need oxygen for their survival). Cool, slow, smelly composting, like decay at the tip, is the result of activity by anaerobic organisms (those which thrive in saturated, airless conditions). We can achieve the best composting by getting the conditions right for the best organisms.

How to Compost

The Method

The essential requirements are nutrients, air, water, micro-organisms and time. Getting the correct balance is the trick.

Nutrients

A lot of garden refuse is dry, brown and woody. This material tends to be high in carbon. Soft, green garden waste and kitchen scraps tend to be high in nitrogen. The ideal mix is about 20 parts carbon to 1 part nitrogen by volume.

High In Carbon

- dry leaves
- twiggy prunnings
- sawdust
- paper
- straw and dry grass
- wood ash

High In Nitrogen

- vegetable scraps
- fruit peelings
- fresh lawn clippings
- farm manure
- garden weeds
- seaweed

There are lots of other wastes which can be composted: tea leaves, coffee grounds, vacuum cleaner dust, old potting mix, vase flowers and hedge trimmings. There is no need to layer the raw materials. Just pile them up and turn the pile regularly.

Commonsense Compost Cookery

The Ingredients

- kitchen scraps and garden refuse

The Recipe

- add water
- add oxygen by mixing it up
- add micro-organisms in a spade-full of soil

Preparation

- turn it every 2 weeks or so until it's cooked

Serving

- dig into the soil or spread on top
- make some more

Source: *State Pollution Control Commission NSW*

RESOURCE SHEET 4

Comprehension/Composition

Answer true or false to the following statements.

1. Compost is produced from decaying matter.
2. Compost becomes humus over a period of time.
3. Soil conservation requires adequate levels of organic matter.
4. Micro-organisms produce compost at varying rates.
5. The composting process maintains size of the compost heap.
6. Earthworms indicate the compost is nearly ready.
7. Aerobic organisms are preferable to anaerobic organisms in the composting process.
8. The correct mix of nutrients for a compost is 5 kg of fruit peels to 250 grams of wood ash.
9. Layering the raw materials improves the quality of the compost.

Answers: 1. T 2. F 3. T 4. T 5. F 6. T 7. T 8. F 9. F

RESOURCE SHEET 5

Procedure

How to start a recycling program at school

Organise a recycling committee to make sure the program is a success. Involve your friends, students from other classes and some interested teachers or parents.

Organise a meeting to decide:

- What you will call the group
- What you will recycle
- How you will collect things for recycling
- Where you will place your recycling bins

You could decide to collect paper in all the classrooms, and cans and bottles in the playground. You will need to have big bins and some room for storage if you plan to collect from everyone in the community.

Get ready for action!

- Paint your bins with bright colours so that everyone will see them
- Announce your recycling program at school — make sure everyone knows what to recycle and where

Hold regular meetings. To keep everyone interested in recycling you have to make it fun. Try to organise special events at school — like environment days, or recycling team excursions. Other ideas include planting trees, organising a school compost heap and garden, showing environmental videos at lunchtime or having a guest speaker to talk to your group.

Source: *Recycling News*,
Social Change Media

RESOURCE SHEET 6

Stages

Goal How to start a recycling program at school

Step 1 Organise a recycling committee to make sure the program is a success. Involve your friends, students from other classes and some interested teachers or parents.

Step 2 Organise a meeting to decide:

- What you will call the group
- What you will recycle
- How you will collect things for recycling
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Step 3 Get ready for action!

- Paint your bins with bright colours so that everyone will see them
- Announce your recycling program at school — make sure everyone knows what to recycle and where

Step 4 Hold regular meetings. To keep everyone interested in recycling you have to make it fun. Try to organise special events at school — like environment days, or recycling team excursions. Other ideas include planting trees, organising a school compost heap and garden, showing environmental videos at lunchtime or having a guest speaker to talk to your group.

Source: *Recycling News*,
Social Change Media

RESOURCE SHEET 7

Language task: Fill in the cloze passage below.

Organise a recycling committee to make sure the program is a success. .... your friends, students from other classes and some interested teachers or parents.

.... a meeting to decide:

- What you will call the group
- What you will recycle
- How you will collect things for recycling
- Where you will place your recycling bins

You could decide to collect paper in all the classrooms, and cans and bottles in the playground. You will need to have big bins and some room for storage if you plan to collect from everyone in the community.

Get ready for action!

- .... your bins with bright colours so that everyone will see them
- .... your recycling program at school — make sure everyone knows what to recycle and where

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Source: *Recycling News*,
Social Change Media

RESOURCE SHEET 8

Teacher-led Construction Version 1

Goal	**Making a compost heap**
Step 1	When you make a compost heap you have to decide if you're going to use a bin or do it in your back yard.
Step 2	You have to make sure that all your rubbish gets separated.
Step 3	You have to make sure that you add water and keep it wet all the time.
Step 4	The compost has to be mixed up once a week.
Step 5	After ten weeks the compost is ready put it on your garden.

RESOURCE SHEET 9

Teacher-led Construction Version 2

How to Make a Compost Heap

Decide whether you will use a compost bin or build a compost heap in the corner of your garden.

Separate food scraps and garden waste from other rubbish and throw on to the compost heap.

Add a little water regularly to keep compost heap slightly damp.

Turn compost **over** with a garden fork every week. If you have a bin, make sure you keep the lid on.

After about 10 weeks, when the scraps have turned into compost, **dig** the compost into your garden or spread it around the trees.

RESOURCE SHEET 10

Sample Student-led Construction

What You Can Do

- Where possible, buy products loose or with minimal packaging. Avoid buying things you think are over-packaged. To recognise over-packaging when you see it, consider what function each component of the packaging performs. If it's only for convenience, are you willing to sacrifice convenience for less packaging?

- If you have access to a recycling scheme, participate — especially with materials like glass and aluminium, where recycling industries are operating efficiently. (And don't forget the containers you buy when you're out — take them home for recycling.)

- Re-use packaging where you can — the plastic bags from self-serve fruit and vegetable shops, for example, can often be re-used many times, as can plastic carry bags. Or take your own shopping bag with you.

- Buy the largest size practical and, if possible, buy in bulk. Small sizes mean more packaging. A large container of juice can be decanted into small re-usable plastic drink bottles for school lunches, for example, and a large jar of tomato paste can be saved from going mouldy by putting a layer of olive oil over the paste after each use. If you are willing to make a little extra effort, there are ways around many of the problems currently presented by packaging.

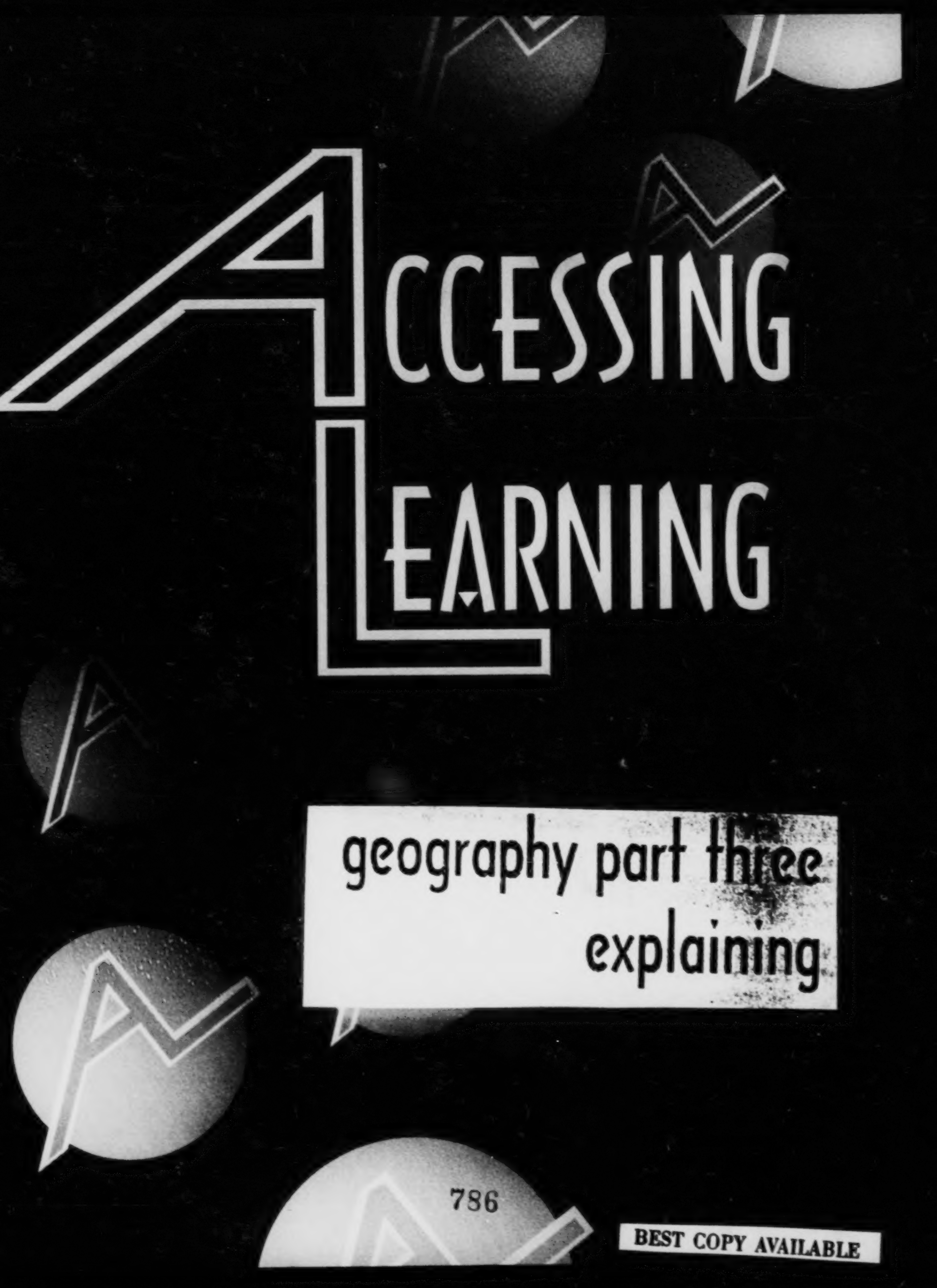
- Look for products packaged in recycled materials, or in packaging that can actually be recycled — that is, collected for recycling by your local council.

- Buy refill packs where they're available

Write to the manufacturer if you think a product is over-packaged.

- Don't litter! Do what many wrappers tell you and dispose of them 'thoughtfully'.

There is, however, a limit to what consumers can do about the problems associated with packaging. Industry and government need to do more to help overcome the barriers to efficient recycling, for example; and the packaging industry also needs to conduct thorough studies of the whole life-cycle of its products and identify other ways of reducing resource consumption and waste.



ACCESSING LEARNING

geography part three explaining

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PART THREE OVERVIEW - EXPLAINING

Aspects of water conservation are explained in this extended cycle.

	Content and Tasks	**Assessment**
Preparing the Context	Teacher discusses the importance of water for our environment.	Informal assessment
Developing the Context	*Water Quality: the Challenge* — focus question *Why Save Water?* — sequencing and nominalisation *Hints on Household Water Savings* — Theme *The Hydrologic Cycle* — processes	Informal assessment of the students' understanding of the content through success in language activities Students' self assessment of their ability to sequence passage and find lexical links
Modelling	A model explanation *Why it is important to save water* — dictogloss	Informal assessment of students' ability to break text into stages, identify their functions, recognise genre-appropriate language and the importance of Given/New in building information. Students' self-assessment in dictogloss
Developing the Context	*How Water is Treated* — flow chart *Water Disposal* — vocabulary, matching labels to graphics, simplifying language *Bio-accumulation* — matching activity	Formal assessment of the students' flow chart. Informal assessment of understanding of content through language activities
Teacher-led Construction	Teacher and students write an account of how pollutants affect our waterways.	Informal assessment of students' ability to make use of appropriate text stages and language choices in this topic
Developing the Context	*Sewage Treatment* — three level comprehension *Sewage Treatment* — oral cloze and flow chart	Informal assessment of understanding through language activities
Teacher-led Construction	Students write an account of how sewage sludge is treated prior to its disposal or re-use.	Formal assessment of the students' ability to apply knowledge of subject content to a successful account, based on criteria established during the unit
Resource Sheets	Activity sheets and resource sheets are grouped as Resource Sheets at the end of each Part. They are referred to by number in the text.	

PART THREE - EXPLAINING

PREPARING THE CONTEXT

The teacher discusses the importance of water for our environment.

DEVELOPING THE CONTEXT

The students read Resource Sheet 1, *Water Quality: the Challenge*, keeping in mind the focus question shown above it.

The teacher organises the students to read Resource Sheet 2, *Why Save Water?* and undertake the sequencing and nominalisation language activity.

Language activity

Cut the passage *Why Save Water?* into paragraphs and ask students to re-assemble it.

Ask them to look for linking words within each paragraph and between paragraphs to justify their choice.

Resource Sheet 3 has been marked to show lexical cohesion, much of which is expressed through nominal groups and nominalisation.

What effect does packing meaning into nominal groups have?

Point out to the students that through nominalisation the writer is able to build knowledge using the Given/New structure. (See Module Two: Glossary of Language Features.)

For instance, the writer introduces the concept of water being wasted and needing to be conserved. A discussion follows regarding the effects of water wastage and ways water conservation can occur, since the concepts have been previously established. The process words have become nominalisations. In this way knowledge is built upon and further extended without the writer having to continually repeat concepts such as conserving water (conservation) and wasting water (water wastage).

In paragraphs 6 and 7, a number of nominal groups are in bold (Column 1). Ask students to unpack the meaning of each nominal group to provide its simplest meaning (Column 2).

Column 1	Column 2
water conservation	the conserving of water
water consumption	the consumption of water
environmental impacts	impacting on the environment
increased water usage	using more water
pollution of the environment	the environment which is polluted
sewer overflows	the sewer which is overflowing

Ask students to read Resource Sheet 4, *Hints on Household Water Saving*, and find verbs in the Theme position (Resource Sheet 5).

Students should look for the occasions when the sentence begins with a verb. Why did the writer choose to put the verb first? Point out that in order to give clear instructions authors often put the verb first.

The teacher provides students with Resource Sheet 6, *The Hydrologic Cycle*. Teacher and students write a definition of the hydrologic cycle. The students undertake to identify the material and relational processes (Resource Sheet 7).

The teacher points out to the students that material processes appear mostly in paragraph 1 and the last sentence of paragraph 3 because the paragraphs explain actions. Relational processes appear in all paragraphs to show how one thing relates to another, for example in paragraph 2 the relationships of the earth's water to oceans and land is explained through the relational process *have*.

Once students recognise that movement is created in the text by material processes and relationships are established through relational processes, they can use this information for taking notes. For instance, key material processes can be listed to help the student remember the sequence of actions as follows:

The Water Board:

1. captures
2. stores
3. diverts water to its customers
4. cleans
5. supplies

Notes can also be written as students recognise through relational processes the significance of one fact to another.

MODELLING

The teacher places a model explanation, *Explain why it is important to save water*, on OHT and deconstructs the stages. See Resource Sheets 8 and 9.

This explanation shows **why** or gives reasons for the importance of saving water. Therefore reasons will be listed and connectives such as *one reason*, *another reason* and *finally* will be used to organise the information. It is an account of why we should save water.

The students then undertake the dictogloss language activity. (See Module Six for an explanation of dictogloss.)

Dictogloss

1. Students have been prepared for an explanation of why it is important to save water by the previous activity (deconstruction of the stages in the model).

2. Group the students and prepare them to note key words.

3. Read the following model at normal speed. Students are to listen but not write.

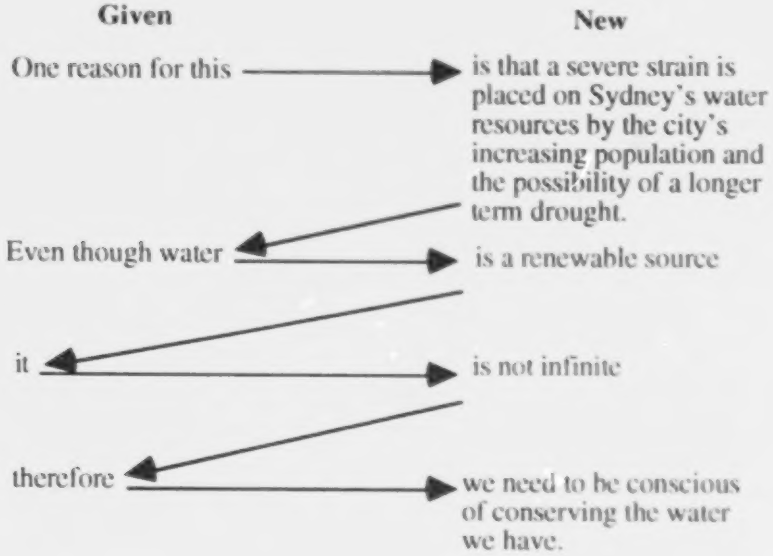
4. Re-read, pausing slightly at end of each sentence while students note key words.

5. In groups, students reconstruct text as best they can, while the teacher gives guidance to groups as needed.

6. Each group writes their version down a column on the blackboard.

7. Together teachers and students explore versions on board and adjust.

In order to guide students during Steps 6 and 7, the teacher needs to understand the essential language structure which underlies this kind of explanatory writing, ie the structure Given and New which builds information up as the text proceeds. Following is a break-up of the Given and New structure in the reading.



Given	**New**
One reason for this	is that a severe strain is placed on Sydney's water resources by the city's increasing population and the possibility of a longer term drought.
Even though water	is a renewable source
it	is not infinite
therefore	we need to be conscious of conserving the water we have.

The student versions of the text may well confuse the relationships between the participants, eg the connection between the strain on the water resources and the water and the fact that it is not infinite. We know, for example, when the author talks about ***water*** in the position Given in the sentence immediately after ***the possibility of a long term drought*** in the New of the previous sentence, that a connection is being made with the need for water conservation in case of drought.

In other words, as readers we use our implicit knowledge of Given/New to follow the build-up of knowledge. By making it explicit, teachers can assist students not only to accurately interpret these relationships in their reading, but also to clearly sequence their explanations.

DEVELOPING THE CONTEXT

Before moving into teacher-led construction, the teacher needs to build more field knowledge with the students, so developing the context is resumed. See Resource Sheet 10 for information on water treatments, which students are asked to represent as a flow chart. Students do further work on technical vocabulary and reading graphics in Resource Sheets 11 and 12. Answers are on Resource Sheet 13.

Vocabulary

Using context clues from the passage *Waste Disposal* explain the meaning of the following words:

constitute
a vast purification system
debris
dilute
disposal
urban
gutted
hydrosphere
pollutants

Matching

As students match the labels to the diagram in Resource Sheet 12 you can assess their ability to match diagrammatic representations with labels and to make the connection between written text and the diagram.

Confirm students' comprehension by having them rewrite the following phrases/sentences using simple language:

- *constitute a vast purification system cleansing our landmasses of debris*
- *fundamental to the artificial disposal system of pipes and treatment plants to process urban waste products*
- *concentrations of people and concentration of waste, which can pollute local natural resources, including the waterways, have had an effect on our urban environment.*

Bio-accumulation is the next aspect of pollution which students consider in Resource Sheet 14.

Hand out the *Bio-accumulation* passage and diagram. Students read the text. Cut up the sections *Substance, Examples, Effects* and have students reassemble them. Choose whether the students look at the text while they are doing the activity, according to the ability of the class.

TEACHER-LED CONSTRUCTION

The teacher leads the students in writing **an account** of how pollutants affect our waterways.

Version 1 Correct staging	becomes	**Version 2** Correct staging and appropriate language
Pollutants affect ourwaterways		The three significant pollutants affecting our waterways...
Heavy metals...		Firstly, there are heavy metals...
All these things affect our waterways		Heavy metals, nutrients and chemicals severely impair our environment by polluting our waterways

Extended examples of Version 1 and Version 2 appear on Resource Sheet 15 with the stages of an account identified.

DEVELOPING THE CONTEXT

To extend the students' knowledge developing the context is repeated, moving to the subject of **sewage treatment** (Resource Sheet 16).

Comprehension activity

The teacher provides a list of statements (Resource Sheet 17) to the students. The students, working in groups, decide if the statements are true of false. An answer sheet is provided on Resource Sheet 18.

Resource Sheet 19 deals with primary, secondary and tertiary treatment of sewage. Have students read it and undertake the following language activity.

Language activity

Choose one section of the previous reading, for example *Secondary Treatment and Sludge Removal.*

Make an oral cloze (Resource Sheet 20).

- Hand out to students the passage with selected content words blanked out.
- Read the completed passage as students follow their incomplete version.

- Students fill in the blanks.
- Read the passage one final time.
- Ask the students to design a flow chart based on information in the passage.

STUDENT-LED CONSTRUCTION

The students write an account of how sewage sludge is treated prior to disposal or re-use. Resource Sheet 21 may serve as a model.

RESOURCE SHEET 1

Focus question:

In your own words, explain the relationship between water quality and water management.

Water Quality: The Challenge

Water is a resource that we have to manage well because life in cities depends on fresh water being available.

We collect it in catchments and store it in artificial lakes created by dams. We transport the water many miles to bring it to our cities.

We distribute it through pipes so that is available to us where and when we want it.

We treat water used for drinking purposes to protect public health. We then have to be careful about how waste water is returned to the environment.

Until recently, concern about water usually occurred only when it was not available to us in the amounts we wanted (droughts), or when it was present in overabundance (floods).

To protect water quality we must manage the total urban water cycle.

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RESOURCE SHEET 2

Why Save Water?

Water is a renewable resource, but we should not consider it infinite. There are sound environmental as well as economic benefits in conserving water. The Sydney Water Board, at any one time, holds enough water in storage to last about five years. Although this may seem like ample supply, it may not be enough to cope with extended drought. Despite occasional heavy rain, Sydney's rainfall is variable from year to year and Sydney must be ready for a drought. In generations gone by, particularly before Warragamba dam was built, droughts in the Sydney, Illawarra and Blue Mountains regions caused serious supply problems and the need for restrictions on water use.

Tap water is not free. As soon as rainwater reaches any of the Water Board's catchment areas, it is stored, protected from pollution, tested, screened, disinfected, and by law fluoridated as well as pumped and kept moving through a 19,500 kilometre network of water mains. Water from your tap is an expensive commercial product.

We all need water to drink, cook, wash our clothes, keep clean and perhaps water the garden, but we could get by comfortably using much less. If we conserve water, we can minimise great wastage in all these areas. We need a change in attitude and behaviour as well as better appliances.

Sydney's growing population, which is expanding by about 60,000 people per year, is putting increasing demands on the water supply system. People are also using more and more water. We are using more water than our parents and our parents were using more water than our grandparents when they were growing up.

If Sydney's total population continues to grow and we continue to use water at the present rate, then other sources of water will need to be developed. We must also plan for future droughts. However, more stored water means more dams. Already the construction of a large dam is being considered for the Shoalhaven River.

One of the most important reasons for water conservation is the environmental benefits this brings. By reducing our water consumption we can defer the building of a new dam, which can have large environmental impacts. Valuable land is flooded and there are major changes to the environment upstream and downstream. Also by reducing the demands we reduce the need to amplify the existing supply network with larger pipes.

Increased water usage means greater pollution of the environment. By using less water we can reduce the load on our sewage treatment plants. This will help to reduce sewer overflows.

Pollution is also reduced by not wasting water on our gardens. Water running off our gardens and lawns carries fertilizers, chemicals, grease, litter, animal droppings etc into our local bushland, into storm water drains and waterways and ultimately to the ocean.

When you save water you are saving money and the environment.

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RESOURCE SHEET 3

Reading — lexical cohesion

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When you save water you are saving money and the environment.

797

Hints for Household Water Savings

The average household in the Sydney region uses 100,000 litres of water a year more than it really needs to (the equivalent of 9,000 toilet flushes).

Adopting simple measures to cut down on the wastage would not affect personal hygiene or standards of living in any way.

Following are some tips for saving water:

In the Garden

- Sweep footpaths instead of hosing.
- Turn off the hose while washing the car.
- Do not over-water lawns, and grow natives plants rather than water-loving exotics.

In the Bathroom

- When building or renovating, install dual-flush cisterns, don't use the toilet to flush away rubbish. Take shorter showers or baths. Other measures include: installing a water efficient shower rose or a flow-control valve to an existing shower rose, installing aerated taps and even turning off the water while brushing your teeth.

In the Laundry

- Use low level options for partial washing machine loads and consider using suds-saver functions. When updating, choose front load washing machines which use less water and energy.

In the Kitchen

- Do small "wash ups" by hand, or wait until the dishwasher is full. When you're rinsing vegetables, put a plug in the sink. Some things don't necessarily need to be rinsed in hot water. The water that runs down the sink while you are waiting for the hot water is wasted.

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Hints for Household Water Savings

The average household in the Sydney region uses 100,000 litres of water a year more than it really needs to (the equivalent of 9,000 toilet flushes).

Adopting simple measures to cut down on the wastage would not affect personal hygiene or standards of living in any way.

Following are some tips for saving water:

In the Garden

- **Sweep** footpaths instead of hosing.
- **Turn off** the hose while washing the car.
- **Do no over-water** lawns, and grow natives plants rather than water-loving exotics.

In the Bathroom

- When building or renovating, install dual-flush cisterns. **Don't use** the toilet to flush away rubbish. **Take** shorter showers or baths. Other measures include: installing a water efficient shower rose or a flow-control valve to an existing shower rose, installing aerated taps and even turning off the water while brushing your teeth.

In the Laundry

- **Use** low level options for partial washing machine loads and consider using suds-saver functions. When updating, choose front load washing machines which use less water and energy.

In the Kitchen

- **Do** small "wash ups" by hand, or wait until the dishwasher is full. When you're rinsing vegetables, put a plug in the sink. Some things don't necessarily need to be rinsed in hot water. The water that runs down the sink while you are waiting for the hot water is wasted.

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RESOURCE SHEET 6

Focus questions:

1. Write a definition of the hydrologic cycle.
2. Underline the material processes in this passage and circle the relational processes.

The Hydrologic Cycle

It is well accepted that the Earth's water is in fixed proportions in its various places and forms. However, the water is continually moving within the system from one area to another. It is continually evaporating from both land and sea, moving within the atmosphere and precipitating on the land as well as the sea. This never-ending circulation is known as the hydrologic cycle or the water cycle.

The oceans, which cover 70% of the Earth's surface, have 97% of the Earth's water. The atmosphere contains a minuscule amount of the total. Of the remaining 3% on land, 78% lies in glaciers and ice-caps, almost 22% lies underground and less than 1% flows in our rivers and streams.

Atmospheric water (precipitation) and river and stream water (runoff) are the two smallest components within the distribution of the Earth's water. Yet these are the areas with which water resource management is concerned. It is part of this small amount of water which the Sydney Water Board captures, stores, diverts, cleans and supplies to its customers in its water supply system.

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RESOURCE SHEET 7

Underline = material processes
○ = relational processes

The Hydrologic Cycle

It is well accepted that the Earth's water is in fixed proportions in its various places and forms. However, the water is continually moving within the system from one area to another. It is continually evaporating from both land and sea, moving within the atmosphere and precipitating on the land as well as the sea. This never ending circulation is known as the hydrologic cycle or the water cycle.

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Atmosphere water (precipitation) and river and stream water (run off) are two of the smallest components within the distribution of the Earth's water. Yet these are the areas with which water resource management is concerned. It is part of this small amount of water which the Sydney Water Board captures, stores diverts, cleans and supplies to its customers in its water supply system.

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RESOURCE SHEET 8

Model explanation

Task: Explain why it is important to save water.

Water plays a big part in our lives. We need water to drink, cook, wash our clothes, keep clean and perhaps water the garden. However, a lot of water is wasted in all these areas. It is important to save water for a number of reasons.

One reason for this is that a severe strain is placed on Sydney's water resources by the city's increasing population and the possibility of a longer term drought. Even though water is a renewable resource, it is not infinite. Therefore we need to be conscious of conserving the water we have.

Another reason is that increased water usage means greater pollution of the environment. By using less water we can reduce the load on our sewage treatment plants. This will help to reduce sewer overflows.

Pollution is also reduced by not wasting water on our gardens. Water running off our gardens and lawns carries fertilisers, chemicals, grease, litter, animal dropping etc into our local bushland, into stormwater drains and water ways and ultimately to the ocean.

Finally, one of the most important reasons for water conservation is the environmental benefits this brings. By reducing our water consumption we can defer the building of a new dam, which can have large environmental impacts. Valuable land is flooded and there are major changes to the environment upstream and downstream. Also by reducing the demand we reduce the need to amplify the existing supply network with larger pipes.

RESOURCE SHEET 9

Explanation stages

Phenomenon	**Task: Explain why it is important to save water.** Water plays a big part in our lives. We need water to drink, cook, wash our clothes, keep clean and perhaps water the garden. However, a lot of water is wasted in all these areas. It is important to save water for a number of reasons.
Explanation Factors	One reason for this is that a severe strain is placed on Sydney's water resources by the city's increasing population and the possibility of a longer term drought. Even though water is a renewable resource, it is not infinite. Therefore we need to be conscious of conserving the water we have. Another reason is that increased water usage means greater pollution of the environment. By using less water we can reduce the load on our sewage treatment plants. This will help to reduce sewer overflows. Pollution is also reduced by not wasting water on our gardens. Water running off our gardens and lawns carries fertilisers, chemicals, grease, litter, animal dropping etc into our local bushland, into stormwater drains and water ways and ultimately to the ocean. Finally, one of the most important reasons for water conservation is the environmental benefits this brings. By reducing our water consumption we can defer the building of a new dam, which can have large environmental impacts. Valuable land is flooded and there are major changes to the environment upstream and downstream. Also by reducing the demand we reduce the need to amplify the existing supply network with larger pipes.

RESOURCE SHEET 10 Focus question:

Using the reading, draw a flow chart of the Basic Water Treatment process.

How Water is Treated

After water has been collected, it goes through a number of steps to make sure it is suitable as drinking water. The transformation process can be simple or extremely complicated, depending on the starting quality of the water.

The better the quality of the raw water, the easier it is to turn it into good quality drinking water further down the track. National guidelines are in place to help decide acceptable standards of drinking water. These guidelines cover how water should taste, smell and look, as well as how pure it needs to be for health reasons.

The guidelines help to determine how Sydney's water is treated. The quality of the raw water is compared to the standards, so that methods can be chosen to bring the water to an acceptable quality.

Most of Sydney's water receives only very basic treatment along its journey to the home. It is screened, and then disinfected by adding chlorine to kill micro-organisms which could cause diseases. At present only around six per cent of Sydney's water actually goes through a treatment plant, where extra processes boost its quality. These processes take fine substances out of the water in a much shorter period of time. Water is disinfected after it leaves the treatment plant.

BASIC WATER TREATMENT

1. The water in the dam is tested at 30 different sites so only the best quality raw water is let into the system.
2. The water is screened to keep out logs, sticks, fish and even the occasional eel.
3. Chlorine is added as a disinfectant to kill any disease-causing bacteria. Chlorine doses are kept to the lowest possible amount needed to keep the water free of germs.
4. Fluoride is added to prevent tooth decay in infants and children. The fluoride is added to the water at a concentration of one part per million. The Water Board must add fluoride because of NSW Health Department regulations.
5. The water goes to a reservoir for temporary storage. This also gives time for sediment in the water to settle out. Reservoirs can hold from four hours' to two days' supply.
6. As it leaves the reservoir it goes through a micro-strainer, which helps keep out algae.
7. The water which leaves Sydney's largest reservoir at Prospect gets an extra dose of chlorine which is followed by a dose of ammonia. This process is called "Chlorination". It is done so that chlorine will stay active in the water for a longer period of time.
8. The water is regularly tested by scientists as it goes through the system. A team of mobile technicians travel around taking samples and measuring the quality of the water. Parts of the system can be shut down at the flick of a switch if a problem is detected.
9. Water leaving Prospect also passes through a tank of fish which are very sensitive to changes in water quality. This test is used around the world, and takes advantage of the fact that fish don't just drink the water, they live in it, so they are very quick at detecting any problems.
10. Special injector stations add extra chlorine to make sure that water which has travelled a long way stays safe. For example, water has to travel 60 kilometres from Warragamba Dam to Palm Beach, so it's given a small boost at Ryde and other places.

Drinking Water Basics —Sydney Water Board

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RESOURCE SHEET 11

Waste Disposal

Rain, rivers and the sea constitute a vast purification system, cleansing our landmasses of debris. The use of water to dilute and transport waste materials is also fundamental to the artificial disposal system of pipes and treatment plants to process urban waste products. The amount and nature of some of these wastes is causing problems for the sewerage system and for the environment.

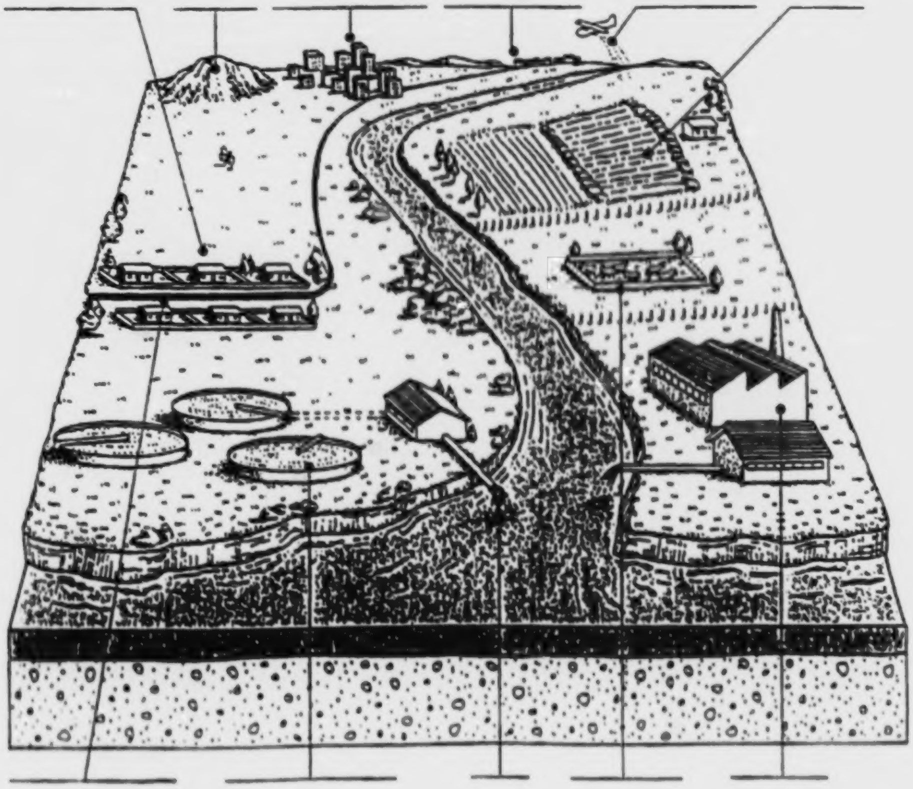
Humans have been causing water pollution of some kind since prehistoric people gutted their fish over streams. Once we developed from being hunter-gatherers and learned to farm land and herd animals, we put more pressure on the hydrosphere. But it's the industrial and technical revolutions, combined with our rapid rise in numbers, which have had the most impact on the environment. Concentrations of people and concentrations of waste, which can pollute local natural resources, including the waterways, have had an effect on our urban environment. The domestic and industrial waste of millions of people are collected and treated in one area. Such waste contains a range of pollutants from different sources.

The Water Way: Water & The Urban Environment,
Water Board, Sydney

RESOURCE SHEET 12

Match the labels in the box to the parts of the picture.

SOURCES OF WATER POLLUTION



Land Development:

Soil erosion

Sand and silt run-off

Suburban Development:

Stormwater, litter

Rural Homes:

Septic tanks, cesspits

Factories:

Industrial waste

Effluent

Pesticides Spraying

Sewage Treatment Plant

Cities:

Urban run-off, litter, silt

Crop Lands:

Fertilisers, pesticides

Animal Feedlots:

Animal sewage

Waste Dump

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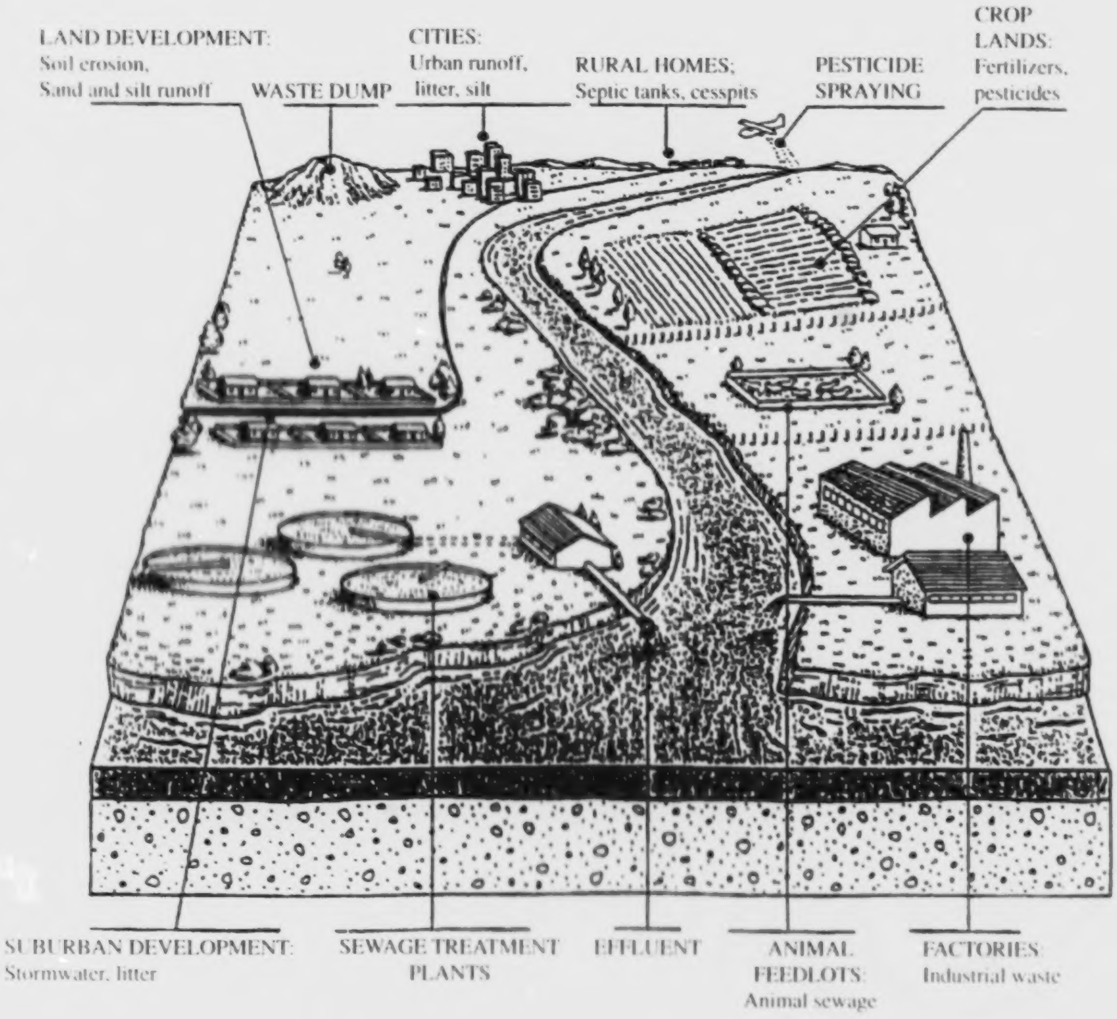
RESOURCE SHEET 13

Answer Sheet

SOURCES OF WATER POLLUTION


LAND DEVELOPMENT:
Soil erosion,
Sand and silt runoff
WASTE DUMP
CITIES:
Urban runoff,
litter, silt
RURAL HOMES;
Septic tanks, cesspits
PESTICIDE
SPRAYING
CROP
LANDS:
Fertilizers,
pesticides
SUBURBAN DEVELOPMENT:
Stormwater, litter
SEWAGE TREATMENT
PLANTS
EFFLUENT
ANIMAL
FEEDLOTS:
Animal sewage
FACTORIES:
Industrial waste

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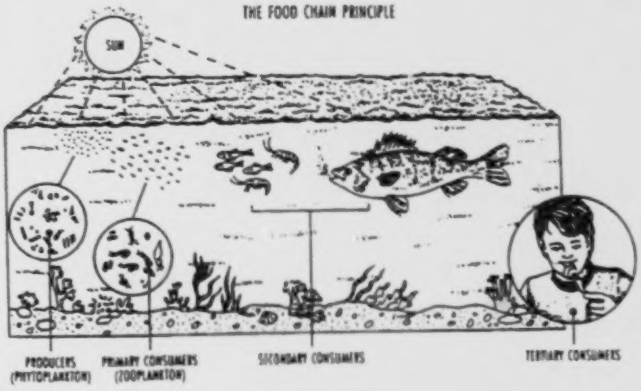
RESOURCE SHEET 14

Reading



BIO-ACCUMULATION

Harmful substances such as heavy metals can collect in the tissue of any organism because they're not easily degraded. They are then passed on in increasing concentration through the food chain by bio-accumulation. For instance, tiny marine organisms may take in some dissolved lead; a school of small fish will eat a mouthful of the organisms; a few larger fish will eat several small fish, and so on. Eventually, a human-being at the end of a chain could absorb concentrated lead.

Effects of bio-accumulation are still being researched, but a range of health problems from bad teeth to cancer and genetic deformities are possible, depending on the substance and the concentration absorbed. It seems likely that humans would have to ingest massive amounts of toxic fish before suffering symptoms of disease. However, the exact danger levels for heavy metals and other bio-accumlants have yet to be established. Meanwhile, the Trade Waste Policy is reducing the number of toxic substances in sewers.

SUBSTANCE	EXAMPLES	EFFECTS
Heavy metals	Dissolved metals like copper, zinc, lead, arsenic.	Can threaten the health of animals including humans, if they bio-accumulate in food chains.
Nutrients	Phosphates and nitrates in sewage and fertilisers.	Encourage the growth of weeds and algae, which block waterways and inhibit the growth of native plants.
Chemicals	Organochlorins, DDT and pesticides (some now banned from the sewers).	Toxic for plants and animals; can kill and deform.
Bacteria and Viruses	Disease pathogens from sewage.	Can cause human illness.
Plastics	Household waste and litter.	Strangle and mutilate wildlife.

The Water Way: Water & The Urban Environment,
Water Board, Sydney, Illawarra, Blue Mountains

RESOURCE SHEET 15

Teacher-led construction: Version 1

Title	**How pollutants affect our waterways**
Phenomenon	Pollutants affect our waterways.
Explanation factors	People and animals are made sick by heavy metals because they eat the poisoned fish from the polluted river. Spraying and fertilising cause weeds and algae to overgrow in the waterways and block them. Factories dump their chemical waste into the water and kill plants and animals. All these things affect our waterways.

Teacher-led construction: Version 2

How pollutants affect our waterways

Three significant pollutants affecting our waterways are: heavy metals, nutrients and chemicals.

Firstly, there are heavy metals such as copper, zinc lead and arsenic. These accumulate in the food chain and threaten the health of animals and humans. For example, heavy metals from a factory are dumped into waterways. Tiny marine organisms may take in some dissolved lead; a school of small fish will eat a mouthful of the organisms; a few larger fish will eat several small fish and finally a human being will eat the the fish and absorb concentrated lead.

Secondly, nutrients such as nitrates and phosphates washed into the waterways from such things as pesticide spraying and crop fertilisers encourage the growth of weeds and algae. This blocks waterways and inhibits growth of natural plants.

Chemicals from industrial, rural and commercial sites are another pollutant often emptied into our waterways. These chemicals, for example organochlorim, DDT and pesticides are toxic for plants and animals. They can kill and deform.

Heavy metals, nutrients and chemicals severely impair our environment by polluting our waterways.

RESOURCE SHEET 16

Sewage Treatment

There are three types of sewage treatment plants in Sydney; primary, secondary and tertiary. The ocean plants provide primary treatment which involves the screening of large objects such as storm debris, the pathetic corpses of unwanted pets and, worse, dead birds and bush creatures which have drowned; all the things that show the mean, ugly side of a big city. And the unlikely. As one worker said: "We get a lot of money coming through, coins, notes, credit cards ... we've even had the odd $50 bill. Good as new when you give 'em a rinse."

After screening, the sewage goes to sedimentation tanks where the solids are settled out, forming sludge, and grease and fats are skimmed off. The remaining effluent goes into the ocean along with some sludge, although most of the sludge, up to 62 tonnes a day, is turned to ash at temperatures of 800 degrees Celsius in incinerators several storeys high. Because the sludge is still 80 per cent moisture it is reduced to a fraction of its former bulk, ultimately weighing in at around 10 tonnes of ash to be disposed of as landfill.

Because the ocean finishes the job at the coastal outlets, the treatment process is basic. It is the scale that is impressive. The North head plant treats waste generated by 966,450 people. From the surface it doesn't look like much and could be mistaken for a small factory occupying an unusually choice piece of Sydney real estate but, like an iceberg, its true size is hidden. Below the surface it is a thrumming, multi-storey hive of massive chambers and sandstone vaults with lifts carrying workers 60m below ground. The atmosphere is pervaded by a distinctive smell which senior overseer John Buckley, 28 years with the board, says he has never grown used to. Some of the men use aerosols for temporary relief. Sometimes they play pranks peculiar to their work. "We had a bloke from New Zealand starting work one day," Buckley recalls. "As we went down in the lift we told him he had to hold his breath because of the change in air pressure and when he got to the bottom and the doors opened, of course, he had to take a real mouthful. We never saw him again."

Inland plants have a more thorough process because the treated effluent is released directly into creeks and rivers, many of which are used for swimming, boating and fishing.

Secondary treatment does everything primary treatment does but adds a series of biological processes to accelerate the breakdown of sewage, together with chlorination of up to six milligrams a litre to ensure the final effluent is 99.99 per cent free of harmful bacteria.

Most inland plants, however, provide tertiary treatment which includes all secondary processes but adds ponding or filtration. Chemists take frequent samples to test effluent quality and the State Pollution Control Commission runs spot checks.

The board is also experimenting, under the watchful eye of the SPCC, with alternative methods of sewage treatment and disposal. At Hawkesbury Agricultural College near Sydney, experiments using water plants, such as bulrushes, to filter sewage have proven partially successful. Greater success has been achieved in the use of sludge as fertiliser. Sludge has been applied to an orchard in the lower Blue Mountains, to 120 hectares of pasture at Glenfield and in tests using rye wheat — with spectacular results in some cases. Sludge can be further processed and blended to produce fertiliser or can be used with household waste for composting and eventual sale to the public.

RESOURCE SHEET 16 (continued)

South Australia is the only State which has gone as far as marketing sludge-based fertiliser. As engineer Owen Karsen, who has been closely involved with the experiments, says: "We have to go very carefully, very slowly. People get a bit uneasy when you talk about using sewage to grow crops in Australia, even though it has been done safely in other countries for years."

Effluent has alternative uses too. Golfers at Richmond, Castle Hill, and Kiama golf courses probably don't realise that their beautiful greens are nurtured quite safely by treated effluent.
A major by-product of sewage treatment is fat from kitchens, restaurants and factories. Every human being washes a little bit of fat off in the shower. It adds up by the tonne. Some of it goes to the board's incinerators but much can be recycled and one Sydney company, Fat-Sel of Terry Hills, collects a few thousand litres of fat from North Head every week for recycling.

Says Fat-Sel director Ken Triggs: "Once the fat has been vacuum-distilled and treated with chemicals it can be sold for all sorts of things, rubber extenders, plasticisers, motor vehicle grease. There is quite a market for it".

One other twist worth mentioning about sewage treatment is the recent addition of pickle liquor to effluent.

Not the stuff you use to pickle onions but the solution used to finish metal in the electro-plating process. Among other things, it seems pickle liquor attracts and settles phosphorus. And until recently phosphorus was a major problem in sewage.

Ian Smalls explains: "In the past, washing powder did not contain phosphorus, with the result that detergent got the dirt out and redistributed it evenly throughout the wash so that everything came out a lighter shade of grey. When it was realised that phosphorus would keep dirt particles suspended in water and stop it getting back into the laundry, the manufacturers of soap powders began putting increasing amounts of phosphorus into their product. Phosphorus is a plant fertiliser too and the increased phosphorus in effluent encouraged the prolific growth of plants which choked the waterways. The addition of a small amount of pickle liquor takes phosphorus out of the effluent and solves the problem of over-abundant plant life in the waterways".

The phenomenon of phosphorus is so pronounced in hygiene-conscious modern society that is used as a yardstick by the World Health Organisation to determine what is an advanced society and what is not. An advanced, squeaky-clean society discharges a lot of phosphorus — a backwater society does not.

Reprinted from *Australian Geographic*,
April - June 1986

RESOURCE SHEET 17

Comprehension

Mark the statements true (T) or false (F).

Literal Level 1

- The basic process for primary treatment is screening, settling in sedimentation tanks and skimming grease and fats.
- The tertiary treatment process involves ponding and filtration.
- People are comfortable using sludge-based fertiliser.
- The secondary treatment process is identical to the primary treatment process.
- Treating golf courses with treated effluent leads to beautiful greens.
- Fat can be turned into rubber extenders.
- Phosphorous continues to be a major problem in sewage treatment.

Inferential Level 2

- All sludge is released into the ocean.
- There is no smell in primary treatment plants.
- Bulrushes filter sewage very successfully.
- The treatment plant at North Head is very large.
- Fat is a useless by-product of sewage treatment.
- Adding liquor to effluent pickles it.
- An advanced society uses a lot of detergent.

Level 3

- Sewage treatment is a complex process.
- By-products of sewage treatment can be turned into useful products.

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RESOURCE SHEET 18

Comprehension Answer Sheet

Literal Level 1

- The basic process for primary treatment is screening, settling in sedimentation tanks and skimming grease and fats. (T)
- The tertiary treatment process involves ponding and filtration. (T)
- People are comfortable using sludge-based fertiliser. (F)
- The secondary treatment process is identical to the primary treatment process. (F)
- Treating golf courses with treated effluent leads to beautiful greens. (T)
- Fat can be turned into rubber extenders. (T)
- Phosphorous continues to be a major problem in sewage treatment. (F)

Inferential Level 2

- All sludge is released into the ocean. (F)
- There is no smell in primary treatment plants. (F)
- Bulrushes filter sewage very successfully. (F)
- The treatment plant at North Head is very large. (T)
- Fat is a useless by-product of sewage treatment. (F)
- Adding liquor to effluent pickles it. (F)
- An advanced society uses a lot of detergent. (T)

Level 3

- Sewage treatment is a complex process. (T)
- By-products of sewage treatment can be turned into useful products. (T)

After Primary Treatment

At some of our treatment plants near the ocean (North Head, Bondi, Malabar, Cronulla, Bellambi and Port Kembla) the effluent is discharged into the ocean immediately after undergoing this primary treatment. (After 1990-91, the primary-treated effluent from the three largest plants, at North Head, Bondi and Malabar will be released into very deep offshore waters, ensuring rapid and complete dispersion and biological breakdown of the wastes in the effluent and ending sewage pollution of Sydney's beaches.)

At our other ocean plants with near-shore discharge points (Warriewood, Wollongong, Shellharbour and Bombo) and at the small inland treatment plants at Blackheath, Hazelbrook, Mount Victoria, North Katoomba, North Springwood, South Katoomba, Springwood, Valley Heights, Wentworth Falls and Warragamba, the primary-treated effluent undergoes 'secondary' treatment before it is discharged.

At our other inland treatment plants, serving Sydney's western and south-western suburbs, parts of the Blue Mountains and part of the Illawarra (with plants at Castle Hill, Gainsborough, Glenfield, Hornsby Heights, Kellyville, Liverpool, Mount Riverview, North Richmond, Quakers Hill, Richmond, Riverstone, Round Corner, St Marys, West Camden, West Hornsby and Winmalee), the primary-treated effluent undergoes both secondary and "tertiary" treatment before release to the environment.

These higher degrees of treatment are needed at our inland plants because creeks and rivers with low flows most of the time are much less able to cope with, bio-degrade and "assimilate" effluent than are the enormous volumes of salt water in the deep water ocean environment. The biological and physical treatment processes used in secondary and tertiary treatment in many respects duplicate the natural treatment processes of the ocean.

Secondary Treatment and Sludge Removal

The two main alternative processes used in secondary treatment are "activated sludge' treatment and "trickling filtration". Both employ natural biological processes to remove organic pollutants, including many of the pathogenic organisms that might harm people.

Both processes also produce additional sludge, on top of the sludge already produced during primary treatment.

During the **activated sludge** process, the primary-treated effluent flows into large aeration tanks. Here it is thoroughly mixed with a carefully controlled, brownish liquid called "activated sludge" — not to be confused with sludge removed during primary treatment — that serves as a culture medium for huge numbers of mico-organisms.

cont.

The micro-organisms feed on organic pollutants in the sewage, converting them into insoluble, settleable sludge material which is later removed.

Most of the collected sludge is recirculated to the aeration tanks. The excess is continuously removed and piped to the sludge digestion tanks for treatment, together with the sludge already removed during primary treatment.

In **trickling filtration** rotating arms that look like a large clothes hoist distribute primary-treated effluent over a circular, deep bed of graded rocks.

A slime layer containing micro-organisms grows over these rocks. These organisms convert organic pollutants in the sewage to settleable solids, which are later collected along with slime layers that have broken away from rocks. This sludge is again sent to the sludge digesters for treatment.

If the secondary treated effluent is to be discharged to an inland waterway without undergoing tertiary treatment, it is chlorinated before discharge to kill most of the remaining bacteria.

Tertiary Treatment and Nutrient Removal

Tertiary treatment further improves effluent quality. It uses sand filtration, dual media (and anthracite) filtration or oxidation ponding, followed by chlorination to kill most remaining bacteria before the final effluent is discharged into a river or stream or used for irrigation.

Tertiary-treated effluent is a clear, odourless liquid.

However, it still contains relatively high concentrations of nitrogen and phosphorus. As any gardener knows, these are important plant nutrients. The result can be over-fertilised plant growth in inland rivers and streams, with blooms of algae and serious waterweed obstruction.

To prevent this is happening, the Water Board is installing nutrient-removal facilities, using either chemical precipitation techniques — which recycle waste products from steel production — or biological control techniques, at our major inland treatment plants.

Water & Sewage: Two Great Natural Resources,
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RESOURCE SHEET 20

Cloze

Secondary Treatment and Sludge Removal

The two main alternative processes used in secondary treatment are "activated sludge" treatment and "trickling filtration". Both employ natural .... processes to remove organic ...., including many of the pathogenic organisms that might .... people.

Both processes also produce .... sludge, on top of the sludge already produced during....................................treatment.

During the activated sludge process, the....................................effluent flows into large aeration tanks. Here it is thoroughly....................................with a carefully controlled, brownish liquid called .... — not be confused with sludge removed during primary treatment — that serves as a .... medium for huge numbers of mico-organisms.

The micro-organisms feed on .... pollutants in the sewage, ... them into insoluble, settleable sludge material which is later removed.

Most of the collected sludge is.................................... to the aeration tanks. The excess is continuously ....and piped to the sludge.................................... tanks for treatment, together with the sludge already removed during primary treatment.

In trickling filtration, rotating arms that look like a large clothes hoist distribute primary-treated effluent over a circular, deep bed of graded rocks.

RESOURCE SHEET 21

Teacher Sample

How is Sewage Sludge Treated Prior to Disposal or Re-use?

As we have seen, sludge is removed from sewage during both primary and secondary treatment.

This "raw" sludge is mostly water, much of which is bound to organic and inorganic solid matter in the sludge.

Raw sludge is highly unstable and putrescible. The aims of treating this sludge are to remove water, so as to reduce the volume of material to be handled, and to decompose the highly putrescible organic matter to relatively stable organic and inorganic compounds. This latter process is known as sludge "digestion".

Sludge digestion involves the natural breaking down of volatile organic components of the sludge by anaerobic (non-oxygen breathing) micro-organisms. This occurs in special digester tanks in the absence of free oxygen.

At some treatment plants, the digester tanks are heated to assist digestion processes.

One of the by-products of sludge digestion is methane gas. This by-product is used as an energy source to help run our treatment plants, and other uses are under investigation.

At the Bondi, Malabar and Port Kembla Treatment plants, the treated "digested" sludge is passed through fine screens to remove coarse material and is then discharged with treated effluent into the ocean, where the natural processes for bio-degrading the sludge are completed without harm to the environment. The environmental effects of treated sludge discharges are carefully monitored.

At most of our other treatment plants (apart from North Head, where sludge is incinerated) the digested sludge is usually discharged into large storage and drying lagoons.

Depending on its final use, the sludge may later undergo further treatment, such as de-watering and composting with other materials, in preparation for recycling.

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ACCESSING LEARNING

geography part four
challenging

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PART FOUR OVERVIEW - CHALLENGING

The notion of argument is developed and language features of argument are demonstrated through topics such as landfill and garbage recycling. Critical literacy activities are also demonstrated.

	Content and Tasks	Assessment
Preparing the Context	Discussion of the concept of argument in everyday life and writing	Check understanding of the purpose of argument in writing.
Developing the Context	Five readings deal with popular misconceptions about garbage, information about landfill, packaging issues, and plastics. Activities highlight technical language, techniques for skimming, scanning and reading for detail. Jigsaw on plastics	Informal assessment of the students' understanding of how to use reading skills to extract information in a text and how lexical cohesion operates
Modelling	Deconstruction of a model argument: *The general public is well informed about garbage*. Students practise critical literacy by examining emotive words, modality and word clines, and complete a cloze.	Informal assessment of students' ability to break a text into stages and recognise genre-appropriate language choices
Teacher-led Construction	Discussion on whether the benefits of plastic outweigh the disadvantages; examination of the schematic structure of discussion essays	Informal assessment of students' ability to apply appropriate text stages and language choices in this context
Student-led Construction	Discussion essay: *The problem of waste in our society is beyond the control of the ordinary citizen.*	Formal assessment of students' ability to apply knowledge of subject content to a successful discussion essay, based on criteria established during the cycle.
Resource Sheets	Activity sheets and resource sheets are grouped as Resource Sheets at the end of each Part. They are referred to by number in the text.	

PART FOUR - CHALLENGING

PREPARING THE CONTEXT

The teacher introduces the notion of argument and elicits from the students their views about the nature and purpose of argument in real life and in the classroom.

The teacher then explains the purpose and nature of the argument genre, that is, to give opinions and manipulate facts in support of those opinions.

DEVELOPING THE CONTEXT

The teacher places the title *Five Garbage Myths* on blackboard and asks the students to predict what the article is going to be about.

The teacher undertakes to pre-teach the vocabulary—*myth, debunking myths, longevity of refuse and biodegradability*—without giving away all the content.

1. Make an OHT of the whole passage (Resource Sheet 1) minus headings (myths).
2. Give the students the myth headings.
3. Ask students to read out the headings and go back to the OHT and ask which myth heading belongs to each passage. Ask the students to make links through language cohesion and connectives.

The teacher explains to students the language links between headings and the relevant information. For example, in the first myth, the words *nappies* and *landfill* are repeated in both the heading and the factual information.

In myth 3 the word *increasing* links to *growing*. In myth 4, *compost* links to *decomposing* and in myth 5 *Reduced* links to *increased*.

The teacher explains the link words that logically fit a passage about waste management, words like *biodegradable, landfills* and *compost*. We don't expect words like *isosceles, equation* and *triangle* because these belong to maths.

Resource Sheets 2 and 3, *Landfill* and *Taking the Wrap*, lend themselves to a variety of reading activities. Some are listed below.

Skimming

The teacher asks the students to predict what the passage is about and introduces skimming as a useful reading strategy.

The teacher explains that skimming is useful when there is a lot of information to sort through, for finding out what something is generally about.

The teacher explains the need to isolate main ideas and/or key points as indicators of general meaning and explains the importance of predictions, role of topic sentences, headings and diagrams.

Scanning

The teacher explains the difference between skimming and scanning: skimming is for general meaning, scanning is for a particular fact or word.

Reading for detail

The teacher emphasises the importance of the topic sentence in each paragraph. The teacher asks the students to underline all topic sentences and then to link them together to form a summary or outline of main and relevant information in the article. Follow this with Resource Sheet 4, a reading on packaging, which has a true/false comprehension activity (Resource Sheet 5).

Jigsaw

The teacher conducts a jigsaw activity (see Module Four Teaching/Learning Activity: Jigsaw). This jigsaw is based on an article about the advantages and disadvantages of plastics (Resource Sheets 6 - 6D).

Instructions for jigsaw:

- Everyone reads the introductory page (Resource Sheet 6).
- Divide the class into 4 groups.
- Each group receives their quarter of the passage (Part A, B, C or D).
- Tell the students to read their part of the article so they can answer their question. They can discuss their answer with the rest of their group. Make sure everybody in the group can answer the question.

Part A — *Advantages of plastic*
Why has the use of plastic become so widespread?

Part B — *The problems of plastic*
What are the problems associated with plastics?

Part C — *The management of plastic wastes*
How is waste being managed?

Part D — *Problems of managing plastic waste*
What are the difficulties of managing plastic waste?

- Arrange new groups by taking one student from each of the four groups. The new groups share their information from Parts A, B, C and D to make notes on the question: 'The benefits of plastics outweigh the disadvantages. Discuss.'

These notes will be later used in the teacher-led construction.

Definitions

The teacher cuts out words and definitions from the glossary (Resource Sheet 7) and asks students in groups or pairs to re-assemble the glossary. The students are asked to explain why they think the words and definitions match. The reasons will relate to language cohesion, for example *recycle* matches *new products*.

MODELLING

- The teacher uses a model argument text on OHT, deconstructs it to identify the stages of an argument: **Thesis ^ Argument (myth) ^ Argument against** (Resource Sheet 8).

- Explain the differences between an argument and a discussion: an argument essay starts with a particular point of view and argues it all the way through, a discussion essay requires the writer to consider both sides of a particular case.

Critical Literacy

- The teacher explains the use of emotionally loaded words in argument essays. Consider negative, neutral and positive connotations associated with different words.

- Show how emotive language reflects a writer's feelings about the issue in question, and allows the writer to manipulate the text for a specific purpose, for example to **persuade** readers of the validity of a particular point of view.
- Explain how emotive language leads to bias and the importance of reading critically for subtle meaning that is found between the lines of a text.

Emotive Language

Point out that if we want to write about garbage, we can choose the word *garbage* or other words like *rotten rubbish* or *recyclable waste*. They all mean almost the same thing, but they do not leave you with the same feeling, one is neutral, one negative, and the other positive.

Examples of neutral, positive and negative words in the passage are given below. Note that *fast, prepared, quick* are negative in **this** instance but may not be elsewhere.

NEGATIVE	NEUTRAL	POSITIVE
rotten rubbish	garbage	recycle waste
fast	refuse	light weighting
prepared	garbage	giant
quick	believe	enhance
excessive	increase	totally
inaccurate	reduced	
alarming		

Modality

Explain and show how modality can be used to soften what is said in argument-based text.

- Explain that the stronger the modal, the harder the evidence needs to be in support of the views.
- Jumble the following sentences and ask the students to order them according to the strength of the statement.

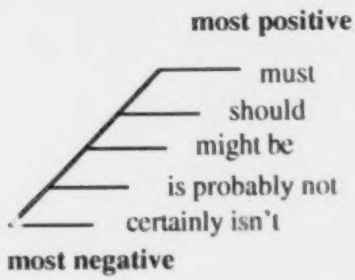
  We must recycle garbage.

  We should recycle garbage.

  It might be a good idea to recycle garbage.

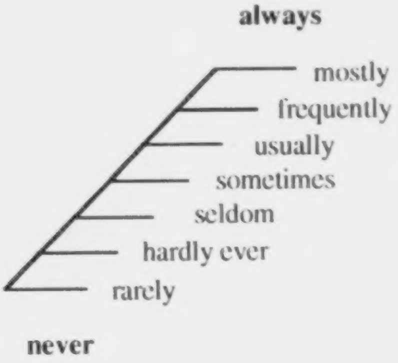
  It is probably not a good idea to recycle garbage.

  It certainly isn't a good idea to recycle garbage.


most positive
must
should
might be
is probably not
certainly isn't
most negative

- If you use words like *must* or *certainly isn't* you have to present very strong evidence to back up your case. Sometimes your evidence isn't as strong as you'd like, so you have to soften what you say. Therefore you need a range of words to choose from that will make your language precise and say exactly what you mean to say.

The following cline shows grades of difference between *always* and *never*.


always
mostly
frequently
usually
sometimes
seldom
hardly ever
rarely
never

Ordering Task — Cline

certainly/must/should/might/probably

Ask the students to complete the cloze which focuses their attention on connectives (Resource Sheet 9).

TEACHER-LED CONSTRUCTION

Discuss whether the benefits of plastic outweigh the disadvantages.

Guide the students to see the differences between the demand of the previous question (required a one-sided argument) and this statement about plastics, which requires both sides of the question to be considered.

Emphasise the two-sided nature of **discussion genre** by explicitly highlighting evidence for and evidence against the topic.

Consider alternative ways of presenting and organising information, for example all points **for,** followed by all arguments **against (A);** or **for** and **against** points turn about (B). These structures are depicted as follows:

A) **Thesis**	B) **Thesis**
Argument **for** Elaboration	Argument **for** Elaboration
Argument **for** evidence	Argument **against** evidence
Argument **for** evidence	Argument **for** evidence
Argument **against** evidence	Argument **against** evidence
Argument **against** evidence	Argument **for** evidence
Argument **against** evidence	Argument **against** evidence
Conclusion	Conclusion

Write up a first version of a discussion essay on OHT using student notes from the previous jigsaw about plastics. Underline problems concerning emotive words and modality.

Topic: *The benefits of plastic outweigh the disadvantages*

- convenient and practical
- cheap to produce
- energy efficient
- cause less pollution
- recyclable
- crushable (less space in landfill)
- doesn't pollute ground or waterways
- newly developed biodegradability
- burning plastic generates other energy

- made from non-reusable energy source
- litter
- effect on animals
- doesn't disintegrate
- high cost
- method of collection
- mostly non-biodegradable
- incineration toxic

Together, the teacher and class rewrite the discussion essay in a more genre-appropriate way, focusing on language features that need to change.

Re-emphasise the need to consider language requirements of the task, not just content, and to check that genre-specific features, such as coloured words and modality, are included.

Stress that when we are aware of the language and make deliberate choices, we end up with a piece of writing which achieves our purpose.

Versions 1 and 2 are provided on Resource Sheets 10 and 11.

STUDENT-LED CONSTRUCTION

Students are to write discussion essays in response to the following question: 'The problem of waste in our society is beyond the control of the ordinary citizen. How accurate is this statement?'

RESOURCE SHEET 1

Five Garbage Myths Exposed

Garbage archeologists are debunking myths about the composition and longevity of the refuse in our landfills. Their discoveries show we need to rethink our ways to dump — or recycle — our garbage.

1. Most people believe landfills are 20–30 percent fast-food packaging, 30–40 percent polystyrene foam and 25–45 percent disposable nappies.

In fact, in an average American landfill, fast-food packaging makes up only a quarter of one percent, some of which is polystyrene, which itself makes up about 0.9 percent disposable nappies make up only 0.8 percent.

2. Most people see plastic as the landfill villain.

Paper, not plastic, takes up most room in landfill. Paper, including newspapers, telephone books and computer printouts, makes up between 40 and 50 percent of typical landfill refuse, while plastic accounts for only 10–13 percent.

3. Plastic trash is increasing.

No, paper is the growing throwaway. The volume of plastics in landfills is not growing. Even though there are more plastic products around today, manufacturers have begun "light-weighting" plastic – that is, making the same item with less material.

4. Landfills are giant compost bins.

Wrong. Refuse is not decomposing rapidly because sealed-up landfills lack the oxygen, moisture, light and sifting which encourages aerobic micro-organisms and enhances biodegradability.

5. Excessive packaging is being reduced.

Not really. As more adults work, there is an increase in the use of fast foods, prepared meals and quick-cleaning homecare products in residential refuse. Convenience has its costs.

'A Dump Called Earth'
by Christobel Botten
ITA Magazine, February 1992

RESOURCE SHEET 2

LANDFILL

Introduction

When we want to know about ancient societies, we rely on material gathered by archaeologists who carefully unearth artefacts (any objects made by humans), bones, houses and animal skeletons from the past. They work like detectives, using the evidence they collect to prove what happened in the past. Even garbage thrown out by previous societies, such as the Mayans or the ancient Egyptians, provides archaeologists with valuable evidence about how these people lived. What will future historians find when they examine our garbage dumps and landfill sites?

Digging up the present

Future historians who dig up the remains of twentieth century society will be able to sift through the mountains of old paper, tin, plastic, car bodies and assorted other refuse. Think about what you throw away every day and you will begin to picture the wide variety of resources which will be available to them. One prominent American archaeologist, Dr Bill Rathje, has decided to get a head start on future historians.

In 1973, Dr Rathje started examining modern garbage because he believed it would give him clues about our society. Working with students at the University of Arizona in America, Dr Rathje began studying the contents of garbage cans and in 1987 moved on to excavate landfills.

The Garbage Project, as it is called, has excavated eleven landfill sites to date.

What has been discovered?
One of the most interesting facts unearthed by Dr Rathje is that plastic is not the main product found in landfill sites. Paper and its products take up some 40 percent of the average landfill. The most common variety of paper, according to Dr Rathje, is newspaper. This form of waste has been particularly useful for archaeologists because the date on the newspaper had enabled them to date the other garbage found near it.

Food waste also makes up a percentage of the landfill site. Dr Rathje and his students have unearthed a fifteen-year-old perfectly preserved half-eaten hot dog, a corn cob with leaves and whiskers buried in 1971 and an entire steak buried in 1973. Other materials such as clothing, make-up, records, books, games, cars, toys and furniture will give future historians valuable clues about the world of the twentieth century.

Even seemingly useless articles like the ring pull tabs from canned beer and soft drinks may inform archaeologists of the age of the garbage. Used for just forty months in the mid-1970s, one brand of punch top cans helped Dr Rathje and his team date the items buried nearby. No doubt future historians will find these items particularly useful!

The problems with landfill sites

Unfortunately landfill sites may also contain hazardous waste in disguise. Fingernail polish, for example, contains four or five hazardous chemicals which would not be put out for the garbage man to collect if they came in 55 gallon drums. Chemicals found in nail-polish remover, batteries and oven cleaner also cause problems when they are washed into the soil or into the ground water supply.

In the Brisbane suburb of Kingston, residents discovered they were living on top of an old gold mine which had been dumped with toxic wastes. Although a $1.2 million health and clean- up assessment for the area has been announced,

RESOURCE SHEET 2 (Continued)

homeowners' health may have been permanently damaged. There are similar time bombs waiting to explode all over Australia on the sites of old gas works, chemical plants and hospital dumping sites.

This sort of problem is not just confined to toxic waste sites. In America, as in many developed nations, airports, housing estates, schools and golf courses are established on top of seemingly innocent landfill sites which may prove to be otherwise in the future. In less developed nations people actually live amongst the waste we produce.

Living off garbage

While Dr Rathje and his team of archaeologists dig American landfill sites for evidence about the society in which we live, other groups of people actually survive on our garbage.

In Cairo an entire community of 25,000 people know as the Zabbaleen live on the waste products of Cairo's wealthier citizens. Each morning they take their donkey carts to the richer suburbs to collect food, furniture, clothing and other products. Most of the food items they collect are used to feed their pigs, and without them Cairo's garbage would simply lie on the streets rotting.

In Mexico City, Thailand and other parts of the world, thousands of people make a living from collecting, selling or recycling our garbage.

So why is it taking so long for our garbage to rot?

Many of us imagine that landfill sites are giant compost heaps. Unfortunately this is far from the truth. The garbage in landfills is tightly compacted in layers of clay, soil and plastic to help prevent toxic fluids and gases leaching into the environment.

Quite simply, this system also prevents moisture, oxygen and light from getting into the landfill site and so the garbage cannot decompose. In most sites the garbage is not turned over regularly and it is rarely shredded. As James Noble of Tufts University's Centre for Environmental Management says, "…the miracle is that anything biodegrades at all."

What does the future hold?

In prehistoric societies a civilisation would decay and collapse but another would move in and take over. Unfortunately the technology of the twentieth century doesn't afford us the luxury of making mistakes and surviving. Mistakes can now have global consequences.

As potentially interesting as our wastes may be to present or future archaeologists, we are simply running out of room in which to dump them. As our landfill sites, the atmosphere and the oceans are filling up, humans must find alternatives to pumping or dumping their waste products. The technology exists which will enable us to cope with our waste problems; we simply have to be willing to pay more for the disposal of our garbage.

One answer is the minimisation of our wastes. We have to make choices about consuming less and disposing of less. Recycling is also part of the answer. As Wilson Huges, a member of Rathje's Garbage Project says, "there are so many things that don't need to be wasted, that don't need to be manufactured, distributed and thrown away only to end up in a landfill."

If our society doesn't make a commitment to changing the way we dispose of our wastes, future archaeologists may find our bones buried beneath our garbage.

By Annmarie Reid
Article based on information found in
'Once the future: landfills', by W. L. Rathje
in *National Geographic* Vol. 179 no. 5,
May 1991

RESOURCE SHEET 3

Taking the Wrap

Is one type of packaging always worse than another from an environmental point of view? This report looks at the costs and benefits of different packaging materials and, using drink containers as an example, tries to enter the debate with a cool head.

What's All the Fuss About?

Packaging makes up around a third of the garbage we put in our bins. Unlike other consumer goods, its job is almost done once the product it surrounds leaves the shop. It has implications for the environment in several ways:

- The manufacturing process uses valuable resources — some of which are in scarce or finite supply — and produces pollutants.
- Energy for manufacturing means, in most cases, production of carbon dioxide (one of the main greenhouse gases) and other pollutants, as well as the use of non-renewable fuel resources.
- Disposing of it as landfill takes up increasingly scarce (and expensive) space.
- Much of it, particularly food and drink packaging, ends up as litter, which not only looks ugly, but can endanger sea birds, marine mammals and other wildlife.

Unless packaging materials are recycled, re-used or reprocessed, the energy and valuable material resources they represent are lost. If more packaging is used than is really necessary, the resources used in producing the excess have been completely wasted.

Cradle to the Grave

To assess the environmental impact of any product, its impact at all stages of its life cycle must be understood, from sthe cradle to the grave, from design to disposal. Factors that need to be considered are wide-ranging.

- Raw materials — how much does it use? Are they renewable or non-renewable? Are they scarce or plentiful in supply? What are the environmental effects of extracting or processing them?
- Energy — how much energy is consumed at all stages of the product's life cycle, from extraction of raw materials to processing and production, all stages of transport, recycling or re-using and disposal.
- Waste — at all stages of production, use and disposal, what pollutants are produced? Once used, does the product have to be disposed of, or can the materials and energy be reclaimed for re-use, recycling or reprocessing? How does it degrade?

RESOURCE SHEET 3 (continued)

The environmental impact of different types of packaging is further dependent on other variables relating to the product it contains — how it is distributed, where it is consumed, the degree to which the product needs to be protected to minimise damage and maximise quality and safety for the consumer.

If done properly, this is a very complex exercise in 'environmental auditing'. Its validity relies on the accuracy and range of the raw data — that is, numerical values for use of energy and materials at every stage of the product's life cycle — and on the quality of the evaluation of this information. It is a far from straightforward task and an audit of this table has not been done in Australia.

Over-packaging

One thing we can say categorically is that over-packaging is an unnecessary burden on the environment. Judging by the huge response to the Green Spotlight section of our Green Page — where we asked consumers to keep a watchful eye open for examples of 'good' and 'bad' packaging — this is an issue of concern and irritation to consumers.

Many items sold in elaborate packages could be sold loose without any damage to the product. Something packaged in a strong plastic tube or bottle, like toothpaste or moisturiser, shouldn't need its own cardboard box, for example. Many small items sold in 'blister' packs often don't need individual packaging at all. Another excess is multi-packaging — where products are adequately packaged individually or in small portions and then sold together in a larger box or bag.

Manufacturers and marketers often have reasons for using the packaging they do — it may make the product easier to distribute, retail or use. Multi-packs may make people buy more of a product than they would if they had to put, say, 10 separate chocolate bars in the trolley. Blister packs make is possible for small things like hair clips to be hung up in visible places to encourage people to buy.

Sometimes what seems like over-packaging may actually help reduce product spoilage or damage, and so reduce waste (see More Than a Pretty Wrapper below). Other times the amount and type of packaging — and the conveniences it provides — seem like a luxury the planet can no longer afford.

There are some encouraging trends in the packaging industry, however. In recent years, the weight of some containers has been significantly reduced — an important way of minimising packaging waste. Over the past five years, glass bottles have slimmed down by up to 30% and further reductions are expected. PET containers have shed 23% in weight since they were introduced in the late 1970s, and HDPE plastic milk bottles are 37% lighter than in 1983.

RESOURCE SHEET 3 (Continued)

The mass of an aluminium can has been decreased by 29% since their introduction 20 years ago, and an 18% weight reduction has been made to the typical steel food can in the past 10 years.

These reductions equate to savings in raw materials, transport costs and carbon dioxide emissions, and less solid waste.

The Need for Co-ordination

There are things consumers can do to minimise the environmental impact of packing, particularly in reducing the amount of waste requiring disposal. But while it may be the most visble problem, getting rid of the waste is only one of the environmental costs related to this very complex issue. Degradation of the environment, depletion of the earth's resources, and the amount of waste produced are all important. They must all be taken into account—along with practical considerations of the role packaging performs—to ensure that changes made really are for the better. It's unlikely that any type of packaging will emerge as the 'best' for all applications.

Of course, this kind of approach is beyond the scope of consumers alone. It requires the co-operative efforts of industry, government, special-interest groups and consumers. The development of national packaging guidelines, currently being undertaken by the Australian and New Zealand Environment Council, is an important step.

Another crucial step would be the establishment of efficient recycling, reprocessing and re-use systems, concentrating particularly on cases where significant gains could be made — in more efficient use of materials and energy, as well as in waste reduction.

A national co-ordinated plan — setting priorities and covering recycling collection systems, restructuring of manufacturing industries and waste disposal practices — is vital, if the will to 'do the right thing'; is to have any significant, lasting impact.

RESOURCE SHEET 4

More Than a Pretty Wrapper

IN THESE TIMES of slick marketing, you can be forgiven for thinking of packaging as primarily a tool to get you to buy, buy, buy. But while it certainly has this function, packaging also performs some important roles which minimise waste rather than create it.

First and foremost, packaging is used to **contain** products. In our society, food and other commodities are transported long distances from where they are grown or manufactured to consumers in far-flung corners of the country and the world. Containers of some kind are needed to make transport easier, and in some cases, possible at all.

Food preservation is another crucial role of packaging — without it there would be a much higher incidence of food spoilage, leading to more food waste and a lower standard of public health.

The materials used to package different foods are usually selected for practical reasons. Moist foods, for example, need to be packaged in something that will prevent them drying out, while foods which contain fat need a packaging material that will help prevent oxidation, which causes rancidity.

Bread packaged in plastic, for example, will be fresh for longer than a loaf that is sold loose. Without plastic wrap, many more loaves would go stale before they were bought or eaten and so be consigned to rubbish bins. Considering the energy and resources invested in growing, harvesting, and milling the wheat, and producing and transporting the bread to the shops, there may be more waste involved and more of a drain on the environment in throwing out the bread than in discarding the plastic. (This is not to say, however, that we shouldn't be looking for a way to do something more useful with packaging than just discarding it).

Depending on their contents, certain kinds of packaging also need to be able to withstand very high or very low temperatures or both, as in those designed to go from the freezer to the oven. While not always essential, these qualities add to the convenience some of us have come to expect.

Other types of packaging are designed to **protect** goods from physical damage or degradation. Most products have to survive the rigours of the distribution system — like being stacked under other pallets, dropped off the back of a truck, or stored in a warehouse for a few months. Without adequate packaging, you would find fewer consumer goods on the shelf in working order and very few in pristine condition. Again, packaging can conserve the very considerable resources and energy which have gone into producing the product.

The wrapping can also be used to **convey information** to the consumer. On food packaging — one of the most visible and complained-about types of packaging — information about the contents, shelf-life, energy and other food values, and cooking methods are often presented. This labelling — much of which the ACA has lobbied hard to have included — conveys important information.

RESOURCE SHEET 4 (Continued)

And we can't overlook **convenience**. Of the great variety of packaging styles — particularly food packaging — many have been developed to save the consumer time or effort. Strictly speaking, those little boxes of juice are unnecessary and wasteful, but thousands of overworked parents around the world are grateful for the five minutes they can save during the hectic morning rush to get the kids to school, themselves to work and everyone's lunch boxes filled. You'll have to weigh up the extent to which you're willing to sacrifice a little convenience for more efficient use of the energy and resources that went into giving you that convenience.

But while packaging is undeniably useful, we're not suggesting it should be accepted unquestioningly. Over-packaging is wasteful and ought not to occur. Ideally, packaging should strike a balance between what is in the consumers' interest and minimal environmental impact.

RESOURCE SHEET 5

Language activity

Read the article *More than a Pretty Wrapper* carefully. On the basis of your understanding of the article, say whether the following statements are **True** or **False**. Is the statement one with which the writer of the article would agree or not?

Statements

1. Packaging's main function is to get customers to buy the product.
2. Packaging is not all bad.
3. Packaging can contribute to minimising waste.
4. It is essential to have packaging of some kind when transporting goods.
5. More food waste and lower standards of public health are potential results of food packaging.
6. Packaging certain foods in plastic helps to preserve them.
7. It would be better overall if all bread were sold loose, that is, unwrapped.
8. Environmentally speaking, we should not be looking for ways to do useful things with discarded packaging.
9. Some packaging makes certain foods more convenient to use.
10. Packaging contributes to keeping consumer goods in good condition.
11. It is unnecessary for food packaging to convey consumer information.
12. Overpackaging for the sake of convenience is environmentally undesirable.
13. It is a matter of individual choice whether to sacrifice convenience for more efficient use of energy.
14. Packaging is undeniably useful, therefore it should be accepted unquestioningly.
15. Where packaging is concerned, minimal environmental impact outweighs consumers' interests.
16. There is close relationship between packaging and marketing a product.

RESOURCE SHEET 6

Introduction

This is the beginning of an article on plastics. The rest of the article has been cut up into sections A, B and C and D. You will read A or B or C or D with your group and then re-group to share your section with the others and to make notes for the discussion essay.

PLASTICS

If you were asked to close your eyes and imagine, then list the contents of your local rubbish dump, many of you would have plastic products close to the top of your list. While it is true that Australians use approximately one million tonnes of plastics per annum (that's about 74 kilograms per person), plastic goods make up only 10% of landfill refuse. Paper and paper products actually make up a huge 40%–50% of the waste materials found in any refuse dump. Despite this fact, plastics are blamed for polluting our environment. Is their bad reputation justified?

Types of Plastics

There are over fifty different types of plastics. Some of the most commonly used plastics are:

(a) PE Polyethylene (used for shrink-wrapping on trays of packaged goods eg meat)

(b) PET Polyethylene terephthalate (used for soft drink bottles)

(c) HDPE High Density Polyethylene (used for plastic milk bottles)

(d) PP Polypropylene (used for car battery covers)

(e) PS Polystyrene (used for refrigerator liners)

(f) PVC Polyvinyl chloride, more commonly called vinyl (used for credit cards).

Plastics are made mainly from oil, natural gas and coal.

RESOURCE SHEET 6A

Jigsaw Part A

The Advantages of Plastic

In today's society, plastics can be found everywhere. Probably your school bag, drink container and lunch box are all made from plastics. Perhaps the chair you are sitting on is plastic. Even the clothing you are wearing could contain plastics in some form. Why has the use of plastics become so widespread?

Plastics are convenient and practical. They are light in weight, good electrical insulators, resistant to moisture and chemicals and can be moulded into finished products which are light and strong. Plastics are a good packaging material. They protect products, and are lighter, take up less space and are easier to transport than other types of packaging.

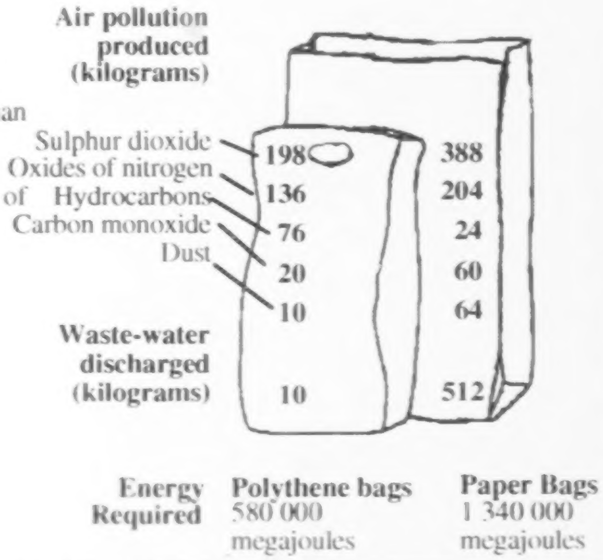
They are also relatively cheap to produce. It has been estimated that the cost of packaging any average product would increase by 200% if plastics were not used.

The manufacturing of plastics is energy efficient when compared to some other materials. It takes less energy to make a PET drink bottle than a returnable glass bottle, less energy to make plastic pipe than steel pipe and, as the illustration shows, less energy to make a polyethylene shopping bag than a paper bag. Just 2% of the oil and natural gas consumed in Australia is used for the manufacture of plastics.

Question:
Why has the use of plastics become so wide spread?

The manufacture of plastic products causes less pollution than the manufacture and use of some other products. Compare the air pollution caused by the manufacture of plastic and paper carry bags as shown in the illustration. Compare too, the manufacture and use of plastic (HDPE) milk containers with the manufacture and use of glass or cardboard containers. Plastic causes less than one third the amount of carbon dioxide of cardboard containers, and less than half caused by glass, even if the glass is recycled ten times. Carbon dioxide is a gas which is a major contributor to the greenhouse effect. In addition, no CFCs (chlorofluorocarbons which damage the earth's ozone layer) are produced in the manufacture of plastic containers. CFCs are produced however when some foam plastics are manufactured.

The environmental burden per 1 million bags


Air pollution produced (kilograms)
Sulphur dioxide
Oxides of nitrogen
Hydrocarbons
Carbon monoxide
Dust
198
136
76
20
10
388
204
24
60
64
Waste-water discharged (kilograms)
10
512
Energy Required
Polythene bags
580 000 megajoules
Paper Bags
1 340 000 megajoules

RESOURCE SHEET 6B

Jigsaw Part B

The Problems of Plastic

Plastics are mainly made from a non-renewable energy source — oil, natural gas or coal. These resources will not last forever, and cannot be replaced. We need to conserve our non-renewable resources, but because plastic is so convenient our society uses large amounts of it. For example the average family uses 2,000 plastic bags a year.

The biggest problem associated with plastic is litter. Because our society uses so much plastic, and because plastics do not break down easily, the litter can cause problems for a very long time. One problem with litter is that it is ugly and spoils the environment.

A more serious problem is the effect it has on the animals in our environment. This can best be seen in the marine environment.

A major problem is that manufactured plastics such as plastic drink containers and plastic bags, are thrown from shipping vessels and some of this material finds its way into the stomachs of sea creatures. Pygmy sperm whales and rough-toothed dolphins are just two marine animals that have been found with plastic sheeting or plastic bags in their stomachs. A starving leatherback turtle was found with a ball of plastic 3 metres wide and 4 metres long blocking its intestines. Fifteen per cent of the world's 280 species of sea birds are known to have ingested, that is swallowed, plastic. Some of these animals starve to death when their stomachs become blocked, while others become weak and ill. Friends of the Earth, an environment group, say that 100,000 marine animals die every year from swallowing plastic wastes.

Further problems have been caused by the new, plastic fishing nets now in use throughout the world. These new nets are more buoyant and, therefore, stay on or near the surface of the water. They do not disintegrate (that is, break up) as the old nets did which were made of hemp, cotton or flax. As well, they are nearly invisible under water. Air breathing sea animals such as birds, seals and turtles get caught in the plastic nets and drown. In 1980, for example, 2,000 sea turtles drowned off the coast of the USA when they became tangled in nets used for shrimp trawling. Some government officials estimate that 50,000 northern fur seals die each year in the North Pacific as a result of entanglement in fishing gear.

Nets, empty plastic bottles, plastic film, plastic pipes and other materials dumped in our rivers and streams also cause problems for land animals and birds as well as sea creatures. Small animals and birds, such as pelicans, have starved after trapping their bills in the plastic yokes used to package six-packs of beer and cans of soft drink. This has led to some states in the United States of America (USA) banning their use.

The problems of plastics lie with the fact that they are made from non-renewable energy sources, they are not biodegradable (that is they do not break down) and that human beings throw away their rubbish which finds its way into our oceans, lakes and streams. Have you ever thought about where the plastic wrapping on your sandwiches ends up when you leave it on the beach?

Question: What are the problems associated with plastics?

RESOURCE SHEET 6C

Jigsaw Part C

The Management of Plastic Wastes

Some steps are already being taken to recycle plastics. A major chemical company and a soft drink manufacturer in the USA have recently announced plans to introduce a plastic soft drink bottle, made from a blend of recycled plastics, onto the market early in 1992. There are now a number of plants which recycle HDPE milk containers. A plant in Victoria is not only recycling the old bottles, but also producing these new milk containers for a price similar to the cost of using new materials. Plants have been established in Australia to recycle PET soft drink containers. They are recycled into products such as windsurfers, plastic paints and filling for cold weather clothing. In France PVC used in the manufacture of mineral water bottles is being used in trials to produce underground drainage pipes for the mains water supply. Smorgon Plastics Recycling, a company in Victoria, is using recycled plastic to make a product called Syntal which is similar to wood. It can be used to make roadside posts, park benches and even walls. The best thing about it is that it can be made from a mixture of all kinds of plastics, which means that plastics do not need to be sorted first.

Plastics that are not recyclable are disposed of as landfill (or in rubbish tips). Because plastic is light and can easily be crushed, it takes up less space than other materials such as cardboard or glass. Only 10% of the waste in landfill is plastic compared to over 50% of paper waste. While plastics do not break down or degrade in the ground, they do not pollute the ground or waterways as some rubbish can.

Work is now being done to develop degradable plastics; that is, plastics that will break down in either water or sunlight. These are especially suitable for use in agriculture: for things such as twine for tying hay bales or bird netting. At sea they could be used for biodegradable fishing nets.

Japan and some European countries dispose of their plastic wastes through incineration (that is burning). The energy produced when plastics are burnt on a large scale is used to generate steam, hot water and electricity.

Question: How is waste being managed?

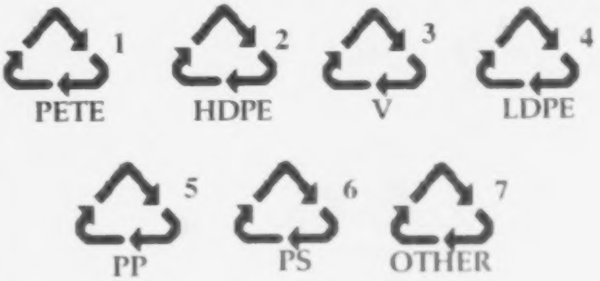
RESOURCE SHEET 6D

Jigsaw Part D

Problems of Managing Plastic Waste

Perhaps the largest problem facing recyclers of plastics is the cost involved. Recycled plastics usually cost between 2 and 5 times as much as new materials. This is because the plastics have to be collected, sorted, and cleaned before they can be re-used. As well, labels, lids, sticky tape and price tags must be removed.

Another difficulty is that plastics must be separated into categories before they can be recycled. This means, for example, that soft plastic carry bags, must have their handles removed before they can be recycled.
The Plastics Industry Association in Australia has introduced a voluntary coding system for plastics, identifying them by resin type. If you look on the bottom of most of your plastic containers, you'll probably find one of these symbols :



It is hoped that this will speed up the sorting process. However the labelling is often difficult to read and the people need to be educated about this system.

A method of collection needs to be provided for recycling, either through kerbside collection of rubbish or by providing central depots. It means separate collection bins for the different types of plastic. While it is possible to collect the larger and regularly used plastic items, such as plastic drink bottles, it is more difficult to collect the smaller items such as plastic food wrap.

Often it is not possible to recycle plastics. Many places do not have recycling plants and the cost of transporting the used plastics is high. In South Australia for example PET bottles are shredded for use as landfill at the Wingfield dump because no recycling plant exists.

Plastic buried in landfill does not degrade. So while it might be argued that it takes up less space, it will stay there indefinitely.

If plastics are incinerated, highly toxic (poisonous) gases can be given off. Incineration also has the disadvantage of releasing dioxides into the atmosphere and so increasing the dangers from the greenhouse effect.

Conclusion

When all factors are considered, it is difficult to say whether the benefits of plastic outweigh the disadvantages. What do you think ?

Question: What are the difficulties of managing waste?

Glossary

biodegradable	describes something that can rot away naturally through the action of tiny organisms
chemical	any substance used in, or resulting from, a reaction involving changes to atoms or molecules
greenhouse effect	the warming of the earth's atmosphere by the release of gases into it, especially carbon dioxide, methane and hydrogen
landfill	disposal of solid waste material by tipping into large holes and covering with layers of soil
litter	waste that has been left lying around
marine environment	the environment of the seas and oceans
pollution	the result of too much waste material or harmful substances in the environment
recycle	to treat products so new products can be made from them
toxic	poisonous, liable to cause death if absorbed by the body
CFC or chlorofluorocarbons	chemicals containing chlorine, fluorine, carbon and hydrogen used in air conditioners, refrigerators, some foam plastics and some industrial detergents

RESOURCE SHEET 8

Model argument

'The general public is well informed about garbage.'
Do you agree?

Thesis	I disagree with the statement that the general public is well informed about garbage.
Argument 1	Firstly, most people believe that our fast food packaging, polystyrene foam and disposable nappies make up the bulk of landfill. In actual fact it is paper, not plastic, that take up most of the room in landfill.
Argument 2	People also believe that plastic garbage is increasing. However, this is not true because even though there are more plastic products around today, the actual amount of plastic garbage has not increased. This is because manufacturers have begun 'light weighting' plastic — making the same item with less material.
Argument 3	Another thing the public commonly believes is that landfills are giant compost bins. This is also wrong, since refuse does not decompose rapidly because sealed-up landfills lack the oxygen, moisture, light and sifting which is needed to enhance biodegradability.
Argument 4	Finally, it is believed that excessive packaging is being reduced. Again, this is totally inaccurate. As more adults work outside the home, there is an alarming increase in the use of fast foods, prepared meals and quick-cleaning home care products in residential refuse.
Conclusion	In conclusion, it can be seen that the general public are not really as well informed as they believe about garbage.

RESOURCE SHEET 9

Cloze

‘The general public is well informed about garbage.’

Do you agree?

I disagree with the statement that the general public is well informed about garbage.

...., most people believe that our fast food packaging, polystyrene foam and disposable nappies make up the bulk of landfill. .... it is paper, not plastic, that takes up most of the room in landfill.

People .... believe that plastic garbage is increasing.

....this is not true .... even though there are more plastic products around today because manufacturers have begun “light weighting” plastic— ie making the same item with less material, the actual amount of plastic garbage has not increased.

.... the public commonly believes is that landfills are giant compost bins. This is also wrong .... refuse does not decompose rapidly because sealed up landfills lack the oxygen, moisture, light and sifting which is needed to enhance biodegradability.

...., it is believed that excessive packaging is being reduced. ...., this is totally inaccurate. As more adults work outside the home, there is an alarming increase in the use of fast foods, prepared meals and quick cleaning home care products in residential refuse.

It can be seen that the general public are not really as well informed as they believe about garbage.

RESOURCE SHEET 10

Teacher-led Construction Version 1

Discuss the comment: The benefits of plastic outweigh the disadvantages.

Thesis	I think there are lots of advantages to using plastics. There are disadvantages as well.
Argument for	It is convenient, practical and cheap to produce.
Argument against	Plastic always causes litter because it never breaks down. Animals can get killed by swallowing plastic or getting trapped by it.
Argument for	I know plastics don't use that much energy and you can recyle them because it can be crushed up and so it takes up not as much space in a landfill.
Argument against	Another thing against plastics is they cost a lot to produce and when you burn it the fumes are toxic.
Conclusion	All these points show that plastic is good and bad.

812

RESOURCE SHEET 11

Teacher-led Construction Version 2

Discuss the comment: The benefits of plastic outweigh the disadvantages.

There are many benefits to using plastics. However there are disadvantages as well.

It is convenient, practical, and cheap to produce as well, and these are all advantages.

Plastic however, sometimes causes litter, as it never disintegrates. Animals are also endangered because they can swallow plastic or become entangled in it and this can result in serious injury or death.

Plastics are energy efficient and can be recycled. As they are crushable, they require less landfill space than other materials such as paper.

Another disadvantage is the high cost of production. Further, the incineration of plastic (a means of disposal) is toxic to humans.

So, despite the obvious advantages of plastic to our society, the disadvantages outweigh the advantages.

HISTORY

ACCESSING LEARNING

classroom sample unit

HISTORY

LANGUAGE AND LITERACY DEVELOPMENT IN KEY LEARNING AREAS

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UNIT OVERVIEW

This unit of work for Year 8 attempts to answer the topic questions by considering the following problems and issues: 1) early colonial society (convicts, free settlers, bushrangers); 2) development of Australia's parliamentary system (squatters, selectors, gold miners, Eureka) and 3) significant people and groups (Aboriginal peoples, migrants, women).

TOPIC What have been the major influences on how Australians regard themselves today?

Focus question: How have people, events and issues in Australian history contributed to an understanding of what it means to be Australian?

PART ONE **Page 7**	*Describing*	Establishes a 20th century perspective through a survey of what people think it means to be an Australian in the 1990s. Students write a report on the survey results.
PART ONE-2 **Page 29**	*Describing*	Introduces a case study assignment. Teacher sets historical context with time-line and provides background information on 19th century experience of Aboriginal Australians: their culture; resistance to white invasion; Pemulwuy Rainbow Warrior. Case study requirement: a generalised report setting historical context.
PART TWO **Page 53**	*Recounting*	Provides background reading on the convict era: the convict 'stain'; convict women; Mary Reibey; and on immigration in the 1800s; Caroline Chisholm. Case study requirement: a biography of a selected character.
PART THREE **Page 73**	*Explaining*	Provides background reading on the issues that led to the Eureka uprising and the events that followed. Case study requirement: an account of the significance of the chosen case study character.
PART FOUR **Page 91**	*Challenging*	Provides background reading on the bushranging era with a special character study of Ned Kelly. Case study requirement: evaluation of case study character in terms of the mandatory question: What qualities does your 19th century person have which are still valued as qualities of a typical Australian?

UNIT OUTCOMES

KNOWLEDGE AND UNDERSTANDING

By the completion of this unit students should be able to:

- recognise various myths which have contributed to understandings of what it means to be Australian
- identify and describe the following people, events and issues which have contributed to an understanding of what it means to be Australian: Pemulwuy, Mary Reibey, Caroline Chisholm, Peter Lalor, Ned Kelly, Eureka; the 19th century experience of Aboriginal Australians; Aboriginal resistance to white invasion; the convict experience; immigration in the 1800s; effect of the gold rush on the development of Australia's parliamentary system; origins and appeal of bushranging
- identify and describe historical change and continuity through a comparison of 19th century and 20th century perceptions of what it means to be Australian.

VALUES AND ATTITUDES

By the completion of this unit students should be able to:

- value the various cultures that make up Australian society
- value the rights and responsibilities of Australian citizenship.

UNIT OUTCOMES

SKILLS

By the completion of this unit students should be able to:

- list historical events according to chronological periods—time-line
- locate a variety of sources (catalogues, bibliographies, indexes)
- read material for an understanding of main historical issues
- make simple summaries from information gathered
- make simple deductions from a variety of historical sources (photographs, graphs, written and oral records)
- compare sources to identify differences and similarities
- distinguish between fact and opinion
- make notes from sources in order to write a simple narrative
- communicate a narrative account of events and people in oral and written forms
- define concepts in simpler terms
- demonstrate an understanding that people in the past had feelings and an awareness both similar to and different from ours today
- recognise some of the factors influencing people's actions in the past.

LANGUAGE

By the completion of this unit students should be able to:

- recognise and use appropriate text stages and language choices to:
  - construct a survey
  - write a report, bibliography, account, argument and discussion essay
- recognise and practise the use of the following language resources:
  - lexical chains
  - thematisation
  - comparative and reference words and connectives
  - given/new structure in building explanations
  - emotive language in constructing an argument.

NATIONAL PROFILES: STUDIES OF SOCIETY AND ENVIRONMENT

HISTORY

Strand: Time, Continuity, and Change

Level

6.1a:	Describes and explains lasting and changing aspects of Australian society and environments.
6.3:	Critically compares representations of people, events and issues.

Strand: Culture

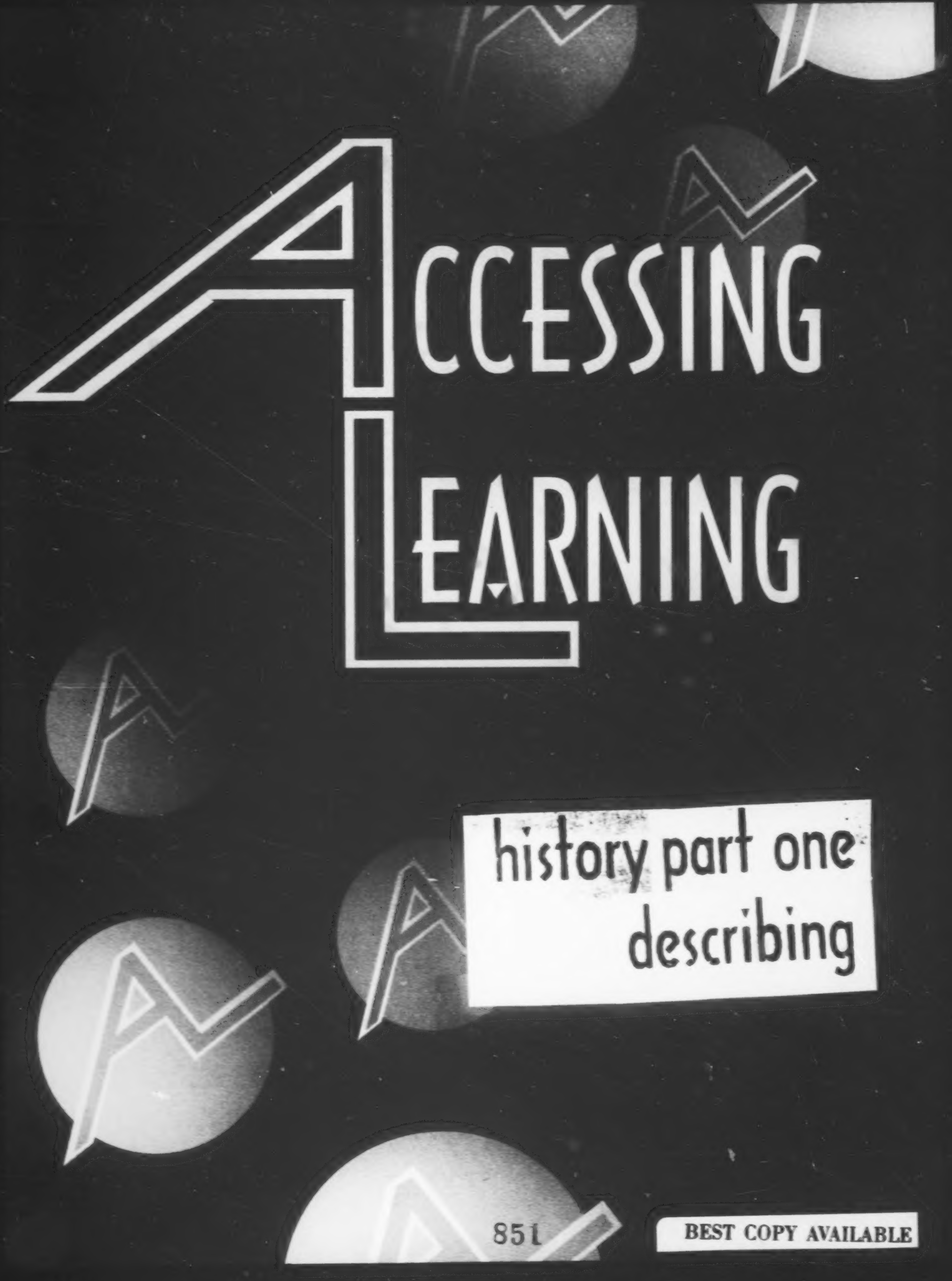
Level

6.8:	Analyses the ways societies or communities maintain cohesion and allow diversity.

Strand: Investigation, Communication and Particpation

Level

6.16:	Explains various ways of viewing an issue and the information associated with it.
6.17:	Discusses the logic of and evidence for an argument or viewpoint.
6.18	Comes to an informed decision through discussing and considering viewpoints and evidence provided by others.



ACCESSING LEARNING

history part one
describing

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PART ONE OVERVIEW - DESCRIBING

Establishes a 20th century perspective through a survey of what people think it means to be an Australian in the 1990s. Students write a report on the survey results.

	Content and Tasks	**Assessment**
Preparing the Context	Teacher explores the concept of characteristics.	Informal assessment
Developing the Context	Reading: *The Australian Character*	Informal assessment of the students' understanding of how to use reading skills to extract information in a text and how lexical cohesion operates
Embedded Cycle	*Students study survey formats and purposes, investigate the idea of stereotypes, and develop a survey to gather contemporary opinions of characteristics of Australians.*	*Students' self-assessment of survey success on the basis of the usefulness for later report writing of the information generated*
Modelling	Teacher provides a model *Computer Report* for deconstruction of stages; cloze on comparative words; vocabulary (lexical chains).	Informal assessment of the students' ability to break a text into stages, identify the function each stage fulfils, and recognise genre-appropriate language choices
Teacher-led Construction	Teacher and students write a report on class survey results.	Informal assessment of the students' ability to make use of appropriate text stages and language choices in this context
Student-led Construction	Students each write a report on their own survey results.	Formal assessment of the students' ability to apply knowledge of the subject content and report writing based on the criteria established during the unit
Resource Sheets	Activity sheets and resource sheets are grouped as Resource Sheets at the end of each Part. They are referred to by number in the text.	

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PART ONE - DESCRIBING

PREPARING THE CONTEXT

The teacher asks the students what some of the characteristics of Australians are that come to mind and lists them on the black board.

DEVELOPING THE CONTEXT

The teacher hands out Resource Sheet 1, *The Australian Character*. The class reads this together and adds any new words to the black board list on characteristics of Australians.

Focus question: Scan the passage, underlining characteristics of Australians.

If you reflect on the History section of Video 1, Part 2, you will remember that the teacher realised that in dealing with the topic "What does it mean to be an Australian?" she would have to deal with any monocultural stereotypes that a traditional answer to that question might give. In order to draw on the diversity of the community in which students live, she decided to begin the unit by asking them to find out how the wider community sees the issue today. From this contemporary view, Cathy was able to work towards a view of the issue based, not on the traditional stereotypes from which the students would probably begin, but on the culturally divergent views which were reflected in the responses the students collected. In this way, she was able to provide an opportunity to deal with the issues of stereotyping in a supportive and contextualised environment.

The teacher plans a survey with students in order to find out what other people think it means to be an Australian in the 1990s. In Part One-2, when the class looks at 19th century heroes it can be seen if their characteristics were the foundation of our national character.

EMBEDDED CYCLE - SURVEY

Preparing the Context

Focus questions:

- What surveys have you seen or participated in?

  Possible answers: phone surveys, shopping centre surveys, door surveys, census, surveys in other subject areas, television and radio ratings (television Logies, pop music rating)

- What was the purpose of each survey?

  Possible answers: 'To see what brand of product I used' etc.

- What is a survey? What does it look like?

  Possible answers: A series of questions or statements which require a true/false answer or sentence; multiple choice; graded responses 1-5

- Why do people do surveys?

  Possible answers: To find certain kinds of information for different purposes, eg product-use, magazines purchased, television programmes watched.
  To identify target audiences eg age range for advertising.
  To identify where changes need to be made.

Developing the Context

The teacher hands out a range of surveys with different formats, eg television viewing patterns, product use surveys, and asks students to determine the following:

1. What is the purpose of the survey? (title and information)
2. What is the target group?
3. What information is the person trying to find out?
4. How do you find out this information? (personal questions and instructions)
5. What did you notice about the format of the surveys? yes/no, rating scale, statements and boxes)

Resource Sheet 2 on stereotypes is handed out and completed. Discussions are then held on the issues dealt with in the activity.

Discussion issues could include:

- Stereotypes are learned and culturally transmitted generalisations about people which have become frozen in our minds.
- Stereotypical statements can be neutral, positive, or negative, but they are generally more negative than positive.
- Because stereotypes frequently have an element of truth in them, they are often used by prejudiced people, who point to some example of the sterotype to justify or rationalise their own prejudice.
- Stereotypes do change over time as a result of other changes taking place in society.

An optional Resource Sheet 3 is included which focuses on students' stereotypes and the degree to which they hold stereotypes about different groups in society. The teacher can choose to spend time doing this activity, depending on the needs of the students or move into the Modelling phase immediately after discussion of Resource Sheet 2.

Teacher follow-up questions

- Before you completed this exercise, did you realise that you held a stereotype of this particular group?
- Would you describe your stereotype as favourable or unfavourable?
- Do you think that your sterotype is an accurate description of this particular group?
- If you were a member of this group, would you want to be portrayed in this way?
- Where does this stereotype come from?
- What purposes do you think stereotypes serve?
- What has been the source of your ideas about a particular group (eg books, TV, comics, friends, etc)?
- Looking back, how accurate and reliable do you think these sources have been?
- What additional information is needed to fill out the picture more?
- Does holding such a sterotype affect the way you act toward people of this particular group?

As the above questions suggest, this activity might go off in a variety of different directions. Its power lies in its ability to make students aware of the fact that they hold stereotyped views and to challenge them to deal with these.

Source: *The Prejudice Book*
David A. Shiman, 1988

Modelling

Teacher hands out cut-up copies of the Computer survey, Resource Sheet 4, and asks students, in groups, to assemble it in the correct order.

Teacher then checks re-ordered versions and places original on OHT. The stages of each section of the survey are marked.

Title^Instructions^Biographical Details^Questions^Closure

The teacher points out that a verb usually goes first in instructions.

Teacher-led Construction

Students and teacher together construct a survey to find out what characteristics Australians are thought to have. Use characteristics students brainstormed in preparing the context (a sample survey is provided on Resource Sheet 5).

Students ask each other to respond to the prepared survey in class and modify it if needed.

Student-led Construction

Students are asked to develop their own survey (or use the teacher-led construction) and administer to members of their family. The results will be written up after the students have seen the model computer report, Resource Sheet 6.

The teacher now moves back to the main cycle and continues with the next stage, modelling. The survey results from this embedded cycle can now be used to write the report.

MODELLING

The teacher puts up OHT of Resource Sheet 7 and shows students stages in the report.

In labelling the stages, we have chosen to use the generic theoretical labels of the genres in conjunction with a particular label that matches the purpose of the stage as seen in the classroom context. This is to assist students in becoming familiar with the terminology of the stages and in being able to apply their own terminology, based on an understanding of the **purpose** of the stage.

Suggested language activities

Complete the cloze activity on Resource Sheet 8 which highlights comparative language. Remember to discuss with students reasons why the comparison words are appropriate in each situation.

Complete the lexical chains activity on Resource Sheet 9 where students track the word *computer* and its synonyms/substitutions through the text.

TEACHER-LED CONSTRUCTION

Teacher and students jointly construct a report using results from the 'Characteristics of Australians' survey that was jointly constructed in the embedded cycle (Resource Sheet 10 and 11).

As in the model, the two issues of staging, and choice of appropriate language features need to be considered. In order to focus clearly on each, it is suggested that:

1. students are reminded of the relevant subject knowledge;
2. the generic stages of the model are used to help students contribute to the writing of Version 1 of their report which should be appropriately staged;
3. the teacher reminds students of the language features examined in the model.

Version 1 becomes **Version 2**

Correct staging	Correct staging and appropriate language
I surveyed my two brothers and my parents	A survey was conducted on four family members...
I had to find out ...	The purpose of the survey...
My whole family thought.	All the participants believed.

STUDENT-LED CONSTRUCTION

Students write reports using their own survey results.

RESOURCE SHEET 1

The Australian Character

Even though most Australians live in cities, their character has been strongly influenced by the bush tradition— the early struggle against a rough land. Although it is difficult to generalise, Australians are usually friendly and hospitable, casual and often apathetic. They believe in democracy and independence. Australians believe that everyone is entitled to a 'fair go'. Australians are also known as people who suffer from the 'tall poppy' syndrome — when people reach the top, they lose support from fellow Australians.

Australians are outgoing and usually cheerful, but they regard loyalty to their friends as being very important and can be oversensitive to criticism of themselves and their country. Most people aim for a comfortable income and plenty of leisure rather than great wealth. It is a popular myth that recent immigrants usually work harder than native-born Australians. People tend to move houses and jobs quite frequently and many young people travel overseas to see the world before they settle down to careers and families.

The most recognisable stereotype of the Australian is the 'Crocodile Dundee' bushman — an Anglo-Celtic character who looks for adventure, has a laid-back sense of humour and a casual attitude to life. Although there is some truth in the stereotype, it does not define the typical Australian. This image says nothing about the Australian woman, nor does it reflect the cultural identity of Aboriginal Australians.

In fact, it is difficult to define a typical Australian: European and Asian influences are becoming increasingly important to the lifestyle of traditionally British Australia. With some four million immigrants entering Australia since WWII, one in three Australians today was born overseas or has at least one parent born overseas.

The Australian population of the late 20th century, of which women make up more than half, is no longer predominantly Anglo-Saxon; most Australians live in cities. A blend of many cultures determines our national character.

RESOURCE SHEET 2

S = Stereotyping
F = Fact

Stereotype and Fact

S F

____ ____ 1. Africans are primitive and backward.

____ ____ 2. Most people over 65 years of age are no longer working.

____ ____ 3. Politicians are dishonest and can't be trusted.

____ ____ 4. Americans are rich.

____ ____ 5. Women are too emotional to hold important jobs in the government.

____ ____ 6. People are poor because they are lazy and don't want to work.

____ ____ 7. The Australian government is run principally by men.

____ ____ 8. Chinese care more about making money than anything else.

____ ____ 9. People in wheelchairs can't play sports like basketball.

____ ____ 10. Australia is a very wealthy country with a lot of natural resources.

____ ____ 11. Many Aborigines have made important contributions to Australian society.

____ ____ 12. More Greeks live in Melbourne than in any other city in Australia.

____ ____ 13. Africa is a continent containing more than forty independent nations.

____ ____ 14. Most of the wars in the world have been caused by the actions of men.

____ ____ 15. The United States government is friendly to Australia.

____ ____ 16. Fat people are jolly.

____ ____ 17. Boys are braver than girls.

____ ____ 18. Africa is a continent of jungles and rain forests.

____ ____ 19. Physically disabled people are frequenty absent from work.

____ ____ 20. Greeks most commonly work in milk bars and fish shops.

Source: *The Prejudice Book*.
David A. Shiman. 1988

RESOURCE SHEET 3

Procedure

Give each student a copy of the list of adjectives below. You might need to adapt the language for your students. Tell the students that you will present them with the name of a particular group in our society and that should check off the adjectives they associate with that group.

Stereotypes

Adjectives

friendly
athletic
lazy
neat
kind
stupid
superstitious
smart
cowardly
religious
criminal
courageous
dominant
sneaky
dependent
untrustworthy
peaceful
dishonest
immoral
helpful
dirty
musical
skilled
adventurous
happy
hard-working
pushy
strong
emotional
energetic
honest
ambitious
trustworthy
conceited
violent
moral

Return by 30 November, 1986

Computer survey

ITS SMALL!
THE THING'S USER FRIENDLY!

Choice is investigating home computers for a future issue. We need to find out if the computers are meeting the expectations of the people who buy them. If anyone in your household has purchased a computer for personal use or business use at home, please help us by completing this questionnaire.

If there is more than one computer system in your household, feel free to photocopy the questionnaire and submit all responses, including the original questionnaire, in the same envelope.

If you wish to make additional comments, please do so on a separate sheet of paper and attach it to the questionnaire. Don't write on the questionnaire itself as this makes it difficult to process. When you have completed the questionnaire return it to:

COMPUTER SURVEY
Australian Consumer's Association
57 Carrington Rd.
Marrickville NSW 2204

Remember, for your information to help us, we need to receive your responses by 30 November 1986.

Instructions

- Complete all the following questions
- Write your answer wholly within the boxes.
- Make sure you read the instructions for each question carefully.

Are you male (1) or female (2)? ☐

What age group are you?
under 15 years (1), 15-19 years (2),
20-29 years (3), 30-44 years (4),
45 years and over (5) ☐

What is your postcode? ☐☐☐☐

How many people in each of the following age groups live in your household? How many use the computer?
(Don't forget to include yourself) Place a number in each relevant box - leave blank if none.

	Number in household	Number who use computer
under 15 years	☐	☐
15 to 19 years	☐	☐
20 to 29 years	☐	☐
30 to 44 years	☐	☐
45 years and over	☐	☐

What is your computer's brand and model?
.... ☐☐
(Please leave these boxes blank)

In what year was this computer purchased? ☐☐☐☐

Which of the following do you now own for your computer, including those that are 'built-in' to the main unit?
Place a (1) in every box that applies.

floppy disk drive	☐
hard disk(s)	☐
printer	☐
modem	☐
monochrome monitor	☐
mouse	☐
game controllers, joysticks	☐
cassette recorder	☐
other	☐

If other, please specify ____________________

____

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Computer Survey (Cont.)

If you have floppy disk drives, how many? ☐

Considering only hardware (not software, games, repairs, maintenance or service contracts), how much has your computer cost up to now?
Please answer to nearest dollar, eg $969-90
Don't know (99999) ☐☐☐☐☐

How many times has your computer equipment been repaired or serviced for breakdowns, problems or maintenance?
none (00), one (01), two (02) etc, don't know (99) ☐☐

Which functions did you intend to use your computer for when you purchased it? Which functions do you now use?
Place a (1) in every box that applies

	Intended Use	Actual Use
business accounting	☐	☐
home accounting	☐	☐
writing programs	☐	☐
playing games	☐	☐
education (eg spelling, maths)	☐	☐
to learn more about computers	☐	☐
communications (linking to other computers)	☐	☐
other	☐	☐

If other, please specify ____________________

____

How many hours per week of hands-on use would you estimate for your computer for all users in the household?
Please answer to nearest hour. ☐☐☐

How has the present use of your computer matched your original expectations? Use it: much less than expected (1), slightly less than expected (2), as expected (3), slightly more than expected (4), much more than expected (5) ☐

For this question, please use the following codes: very dissatisfied (1), slightly dissatisfied (2), undecided (3), slightly satisfied (4), very satisfied (5)

a) Considering only the hardware (eg reliability, keyboard 'feel', ease of connecting/disconnecting etc), how satisfied are you with your computer. ☐

b) Considering the software you generally use, how satisfied are you with your computer system? ☐

c) Considering all the factors, how satisfied are you overall with your computer system? ☐

THANK YOU FOR YOUR HELP

RESOURCE SHEET 5: Sample survey

Characteristics of Australians

Age: Under 15 yrs | 16-20 | 21-25 | Over 25 years

Sex: F | M

Occupation: ______________________________

Were you born in Australia? Y | N

Australians are:

sport-loving	Y	N
beer-drinking	Y	N
rebellious	Y	N
brave	Y	N
willing to take up a challenge	Y	N
responsible	Y	N
well-educated	Y	N
snobbish	Y	N
against authority	Y	N
refined	Y	N
cultured	Y	N
not emotional	Y	N
proud	Y	N

RESOURCE SHEET 6

Computer Report

A survey was conducted to find out information about brands of computers people own, the functions they are required to perform and the amount of use each computer receives. Information regarding the number of repairs carried out, cost of repairs and expected use was also collected.

Five hundred responses to the survey were received. Of these 62% were from males. Sixty eight percent of males were in the 30–44 year age group and 12% in the 45 and over age group. Of the female respondents, 54% were in the 20–29 years, 42% in the 30–44 years, 3% in the 45+ over age range and only 1% in the 15–19 years age group.

More than half the respondents used IBM-compatible machines, the remainder mostly used Apple Macintosh and a few individuals used Commodore. Most machines were purchased in the last three years.

All computers had a floppy disk, hard disk and printer, but only 30% had a modem and 70% a colour monitor. All Apple Macintoshes had a mouse, while only 45% of IBMs had a mouse.

Eighty two percent of computer users have had repairs carried out on their machines to a value over $800. Most machines have received repairs at least once in the last two years.

The intended use of computers coincided with actual use in most cases. However, 9% of respondents used functions such as home accounting and education programs which had not been initially intended.

Finally, more than half the respondents used the computer as expected; 3% slightly more than expected, 33% slightly less than expected, and the final 4% of respondents used it much less than expected.

RESOURCE SHEET 7: STAGES

Title	**Computer Report**
General Statement	A survey was conducted to find out information about brands of computers people own, the functions they are required to perform and the amount of use each computer receives. Information regarding the number of repairs carried out, cost of repairs and expected use was also collected.
Description: Participants	Five hundred responses to the survey were received. Of these 62% were from males. Sixty eight percent of males were in the 30–44 year age group and 12% in the 45 and over age group. Of the female respondents, 54% were in the 20–29 years, 42% in the 30–44 years, 3% in the 45+ over age range and only 1% in the 15–19 years age group.
Description: Computers	More than half the respondents used IBM-compatible machines, the remainder mostly used Apple Macintosh and a few individuals used Commodore. Most machines were purchased in the last three years. All computers had a floppy disk, hard disk and printer but only 30% had a modem and 70% a colour monitor. All Apple Macintoshes had a mouse, while only 45% of IBMs had a mouse. Eighty two percent of computer users have had repairs carried out on their machines to a value over $800. Most machines have received repairs at least once in the last two years.
Description: Computer Use	The intended use of computers coincided with actual use in most cases. However, 9% of respondents used functions such as home accounting and education programs which had not been initially intended. Finally, more than half othe respondents used the computer as expected; 3% slightly more than expected, 33% slightly less than expected and the final 4% of respondents used it much less than expected.

RESOURCE SHEET 8

Title **Computer Report**

General Statement

A survey was conducted to find out information about brands of computers people own, the functions they are required to perform and the amount of use each computer receives. Information regarding the number of repairs carried out, cost of repairs and expected use was ALSO collected.

Description: Participants

Five hundred responses to the survey were received. Of these 62% were from males. Sixty eight percent of males were in the 30–44 year age group and 12% in the 45 and over age group. Of the female respondents, 54% were in the 20–29 years, 42% in the 30–44 years, 3% in the 45+ over age range and only 1% in the 15–19 years age group.

Description: Computers

________________ the respondents used IBM-compatible machines, the remainder mostly used Apple Macintosh ____________________ individuals used Commodore. Most machines were purchased in the last three years.

All computers had a floppy disk, hard disk and printer.________________ 30% had a modem and 70% a colour monitor.________________ Apple Macintoshes had a mouse________________ 45% of IBMs had a mouse.

Eighty two percent of computer users have had repairs carried out on their machines to a value over $800. Most machines have received repairs at least once in the last two years.

Description: Computer Use

The intended use of computers coincided with actual use in most cases. ________________ 9% of respondents used functions such as home accounting and education programs which had not been initially intended.

Finally, ________________ the respondents used the computer as expected, 3% ____________________ than expected; 33% expected and the final 4% of respondents used it ________________ expected.

while only
and a few
All

However
much less than
More than half

but only
slightly less than
slightly more

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RESOURCE SHEET 9

Lexical Chains Activity

Circle the word *computer* in red. Track the word through and note substitutions/synonyms for *computer* as well as reference words.

Computer Report

Title	**Computer Report**
General Statement	A survey was conducted to find out information about brands of computers people own; the functions they are required to perform and the amount of use each computer receives. Also information regarding the number of repairs carried out, cost of repairs and expected use was collected.
Description: Participants	Five hundred responses to the survey were received. Of these 62% were from males. Sixty eight percent were in the 30–44 year age group and 12% in the 45 and over age group. Of the female respondents, 54% were in the 20–29 years, 42% in the 30–44 years, 3% in the 45+ over age range and only 1% in the 15–19 years age group.
Description: Computers	More than half the respondents used IBM compatible machines, the remainder mostly used Apple Macintosh and a few individuals used Commodore. Most machines were purchased in the last 3 years. All computers had a floppy disk, hard disk and printer but only 30% had a modem and 70% a colour mointor. All Apple Macintoshs had a mouse while only 45% of IBMs used a mouse. Eighty two percent of computer users have had repairs carried out on their machines to a value over $800. Most machines have received repairs at least once in the last 2 years.
Description: Computer Use	The intended use of computers coincided with actual use in most cases. However a small percentage (9%) of respondents used functions such as home accounting and education programs which had not been initially intended. Finally, more than half of the respondents used the computer as expected; 3% slightly more than expected; 33% slightly less than expected and the final 4% of respondents used it much less than expected.

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RESOURCE SHEET 10: Example of Version 1

Survey report: Characteristics of Australians

General Statement	I surveyed my two brothers and my parents. Bob is 12, Dan is 14 and my parents are both in their forties. I had to find out what they thought about Australians in the 1990s.
Description	My whole family thought that Australians were sport loving, proud and brave. Dan, Mum and Dad thought Australians were responsible and friendly. My parents thought Australians can be rebellious and against authority.
Description	Dan and Bob thought Australians were independent and willing to take up a challenge.
Description	None of them thought Australians were snobbish or not emotional. Mum said Australians were cultured and sexist but Dad doesn't think this.
Description	Everyone thinks Australians are well educated and lazy too.

RESOURCE SHEET 11: Example of Version 2

Survey report: Characteristics of Australians

A survey was conducted on four family members — two aged under fifteen and two aged over twenty-five. Three participants were male and one female. One male is an accountant, the female is a teacher.

The purpose of the survey was to find out what they believed the characteristics of an Australian were in the 1990s.

All the participants believed Australians are sport-loving and proud and brave. Seventy-five percent of the participants believed Australians are responsible and friendly. The two older participants agreed that Australians are rebellious and against authority whereas the younger people believed Australians are independent and willing to take up a challenge.

No participants believed Australians were snobbish or unemotional. The characteristics cultured and sexist were nominated by the female participant while the male participant did not agree with this.

Even though all participants believed Australians were well educated, they also agreed Australians were lazy.

Overall, the results create a positive image of Australians as being sport-loving, brave, proud and well-educated. I support the view that the Australian national character is something to be proud of.

ACCESSING LEARNING

history part one - 2
describing

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PART ONE - 2 OVERVIEW - DESCRIBING

Introduces a case study assignment. Teacher sets historical context with time-line and provides background information on 19th century experience of Aboriginal Australians: their culture; resistance to white invasion; *Pemulwuy Rainbow Warrior*. Case study requirement: generalised report setting an historical context.

	Content and Tasks	Assessment
Preparing the Context	Teacher shows the students a time-line to provide a context for the period of history being studied.	Informal assessment of students' understanding of concept of a time-line
Developing the Context	Reading: *Aboriginal Life before 1788*	Informal assessment of students' understanding of the convict era
Modelling	Teacher provides a model report, *Aboriginal Resistance: Pemulwuy*: deconstruction of stages.	Informal assessment of the students' ability to break a text into stages, identify the function each stage fulfils, and recognise genre-appropriate language choices
Teacher-led Construction	Teacher and students write a report entitled 'Traditional Aboriginal Life'.	Informal assessment of the students' ability to make use of appropriate text stages and language choices within this content
Student-led Construction	Students select a case study character and write a report on the historical context.	Formal assessment of the students' ability to apply knowledge of the subject content and report writing, based on the criteria established during the unit
Resource Sheets	Activity sheets and resource sheets are grouped as Resource Sheets at the end of each part. They are referred to by number in the text.	

PART ONE - 2 - DESCRIBING

PREPARING THE CONTEXT

The teacher shows the students the time-line, Resource Sheet 1, to provide the context for the period of history being studied. The teacher will need to assess the students' understanding of time-lines and their ability to draw them. It may be necessary to introduce an embedded cycle dealing with time-lines.

The teacher asks what students know about Aboriginal life last century. Students share information.

DEVELOPING THE CONTEXT

Teacher uses Readings A - E as a jigsaw (Resource Sheets 2A - E). (See Module Four Teaching/Learning Activity: Jigsaw.)

A. The 19th Century Experience of Aboriginal Australians.
B. Aboriginal Culture: The Land
C. Aboriginal Culture: Clans & Language Groups
D. Aboriginal Culture: Law & Order
E. Aboriginal Culture: The Role of Women

In groups of five, students do a jigsaw reading and answer the focus questions.

- The teacher and students read introduction, Reading A, together.
- Readings B,C D, & E conducted as per jigsaw process.
- In their final groupings, students together address the task below.

Focus questions

Aboriginal culture consisted of a complex set of social rules. Describe these in terms of:

- the land
- clans and language groups
- law and order
- the role of women.

MODELLING

This segment features a generalised report on Aboriginal resistance and how this relates to Aboriginal heroes and their characteristics. The reading and model reports are on Resource Sheets 3 - 7.

1. Introduce the topic of Pemulwuy.
2. Read Resource Sheet 3: *An Aboriginal Identity: Pemulwuy the Rainbow Warrior.*
3. Examine the responses to the focus question: 'List all the ways Pemulwuy is referred to in the passage'.
4. Deconstruct the model report: *Aboriginal Resistance: Pemulwuy* (Resource Sheet 4).
    - Divide text into stages (Resource Sheet 5).
    - Ask students to circle pronouns and then link them to the nouns to which they refer. The teacher can then circle the word *his* in lines 5 and 10, and ask students who is being referred to (Resource Sheet 6).
    - Complete an activity on lexical chains where students track through the word *Pemulwuy* and synonyms/substitutes for the Aboriginal leader in the text (Resource Sheet 7).

TEACHER-LED CONSTRUCTION

The table below demonstrates the process of moving students from personal writing to impersonal writing by using thematisation (see Module Two: Glossary).

Version 1 Correct staging	becomes	**Version 2** Correct staging and appropriate language
I found Aboriginals thought it was important to belong to a family group.		Belonging to a family group was an important aspect of Aboriginal life.
This had aunts, uncles etc in it.		A family included aunts, uncles, cousins and grandparents.
A tribe had lots of clans in it.		Several clans formed a language group or tribe.

In History, we often refer to general classes of people, events or things rather than individual people, events or things. For example, turn to Resource Sheet 2A, *The 19th Century Experience of Aboriginal Australians*. In the first sentence, early European settlers and Aborigines are generalised participants. Underline any more you can find in the passage.

In writing, make conscious decisions about whether to use generalised or individual participants.

See Resource Sheets 8 and 9 for examples of versions of a report.

THE CASE STUDY ASSIGNMENT

At this point the teacher introduces the Case Study Assignment.

Students are required to do ongoing work on a case study of their choice. As each cycle is completed, students will be able to complete that part of their case study. In other words, in the student-led construction of each cycle, the students work on the next section of their case study.

For example in the macro-function:

Describing	students undertake general report on topic
Recounting	students undertake biography for case study
Explaining	students undertake explanation of significance of events in life of case study character
Challenging	students undertake a final essay that brings together all the units, to explore the question, 'What qualities does your 19th century person have which are still valued as qualities of an Australian today?'

Student Contract

- Choose one of the following famous 19th century Australian characters for your case study.

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- John "Black" Caesar - Ben Hall - Thunderbolt	Bushrangers
- Mary Reibey - Louisa Lawson - Daisy Bates - Elizabeth Macarthur	Females
- Truganini	Aborigines
- Francis Greenway - James Ruse	Convicts
- John Macarthur	Settlers/land owner/ gentry
- Governor Arthur Phillip 1788-1792	Governors/authority figures
- Hancock	War

- You may negotiate someone not on this list with the teacher.
- You must complete each activity outlined in the structure.
- You will begin each activity in class and your case study will be completed by ...
- Please include at least one illustration (a drawing, a map or a cartoon).

Note: a good historian uses more than one source, so make sure that your information comes from more than books, and that you include a bibliography of your sources at the end of the case study.

Case Study Structure

Describing

1. Write a generalised report that sets the historical context for your character.

Recounting

2. In a page, cover most of these aspects of your character's life:

    - dates and places of birth and death;
    - education;

- early life; and
- dates and details of significant events and achievements in your character's life.

(Teacher talks to the above — point form, chronological, and description.)

3. Mark on a time-line the period of history in which your case study is set.

4. Write a biography.

Explaining

5. Primary source documents. Find two primary sources which give you insights into the personality or goals or achievements of your character.

6. Use these source documents and/or any other information to explain the significance of your character in the events you describe.

Challenging

7. Consider these questions:

   - What did your character hope to achieve and did s/he succeed?
   - Evaluate the character in terms of mandatory question.
   - Does your character deserve to be famous?

8. Answer the following question in essay form:

   'What qualities does your 19th century person have which are still valued as qualities of an Australian?'

STUDENT-LED CONSTRUCTION

Students now prepare the first part of their case study, a generalised report giving the historical context of their character. For example, students who have chosen an Aboriginal character may choose to write a report on how Aborigines responded to white authority.

Students may need to be supported through the information gathering required to prepare their report. This will involve returning to developing the context.

RESOURCE SHEET 1 Time-line: Australia from 1788

BEFORE EUROPEAN INVASION

Aborigines live traditional lifestyle.

CONVICT ERA

1788	First Fleet arrives	Almost 200,000 convicts transported to Australia by 1850s, 15% women. Aborigines pushed off their land. Decimation of tribes.

IMMIGRATION

1840	End of transportation to NSW.	From 1832, schemes of assisted immigration set up. By 1850 some 150,000 immigrants had arrived in NSW and Van Diemen's Land.
1852	Convicts only 1.5% of population. Free settlers 4.1% of population. NSW, VIC, SA and Van Diemen's Land granted self-government.	

GOLD

1854	Eureka Stockade.	1851-1861 period of 'gold fever' as thousands of people rushed to goldfields of eastern Australia. Racial tension between Chinese and Europeans. Bushrangers notorious in this period, preying on the gold fields.
1861	Unlocking of the land for free selection.	

EXPANSION OF COLONIES

1880	Population of almost two million. Ned Kelly sentenced to death.	Australian economy prospering. More Australians move into towns and cities. Wool, gold and wheat still the chief export earners. Aborigines pushed to reserves or into missions.

FEDERATION

1901	Foundation of Commonwealth of Australia.	Nationalism inspired a move by the colonies towards Federation. Concerns over economic prosperity and defence capabilities gave the move political urgency.

RESOURCE SHEET 2A

Reading: Jigsaw Introduction

Focus questions:

1. How did the Aborigines view the Europeans? What actions revealed their attitude?
2. How did the Europeans view the Aborigines? What actions revealed their attitude?

The 19th Century Experience of Aboriginal Australians

The early European settlers saw the Aborigines as a real problem. They were either hostile, and therefore dangerous, or useless drunks, prostitutes and beggars, and therefore pests.

Aboriginal reaction to the white settlers taking their sacred tribal lands was to attempt to resist the invasion by force. The Aborigines burnt crops and buildings, slaughtered livestock and speared some Europeans. Between 1788 and 1803, 59 Europeans were killed.

The Europeans — the invaders whose farms and settlements destroyed the land and food supplies of the Aborigines — failed to understand the important ties of the Aborigines with their own land. The British justified the dispossession of the Aborigines by pointing to the two things which the Aborigines now had through British occupation: British protection and Christian salvation.

Unfortunately, British protection and claims of equality for the black man under white laws did not stop the shooting, poisoning and enslavement of Aborigines, and massacres like the Myall Creek massacre. Aboriginal Australians were simply pushed as far beyond the frontiers of white settlement as possible, their tribal life becoming fragmented and ultimately breaking down.

The Europeans considered Aboriginal Australians to be an inferior race — some, less than human. By the middle of the 19th century the white invaders comforted themselves with the theory of inevitable Aboriginal disappearance. This theory seems understandable in the light of current historical estimates of Aboriginal depopulation: from some 300,000 (or more) in 1788, to only 10,000 - 15,000 Aborigines who survived into the 1850s.

RESOURCE SHEET 2B

Reading: Jigsaw Part B

Focus questions:

Describe the relationship between Aboriginal culture and the land.

Aboriginal Culture: The Land

Anthropologists believe that the Aborigines have been in Australia for at least forty thousand years. They came from somewhere in Asia, entering Australia through the north-west via Timor or from the north through New Guinea.

By ten thousand years ago the remotest regions of Australia were being occupied. Aboriginal societies adapted and changed with the environment of the Southern Continent, and developed a relationship with the land which was one of respect and spirituality.

Private ownership and the selling of land did not occur in Aboriginal culture. Instead, a large area of land was shared by the whole tribe and was their 'home' — they belonged to the land, as much as the land belonged to them. No fences or legal documents were needed to mark the boundaries of these tribal lands, as the older men of each tribe kept the geographical details in their heads.

Each tribe hunted and gathered food in a large area and did not travel into the next tribe's area without permission. If the territory of one group was hit by drought or flood, their neighbours would give them food and shelter until the emergency was over.

Each clan lived within its own area or around its own resource areas year after year. Just like Europeans, Aborigines felt at home in familiar places and could be said to have felt a love for their 'homeland'.

RESOURCE SHEET 2C

Reading: Jigsaw Part C

Focus questions:

Describe how clans and language groups operated in Aboriginal life.

Aboriginal Culture: Clans & Language Groups

Belonging to a family group was an important aspect of Aboriginal life. Families were large or extended, including aunts, uncles, cousins, and grandparents.

This extended family was part of a larger group or clan which normally camped and moved together. Each clan also had an 'estate' which was the Dreaming place and contained its sacred sites.

Within the clan, food was shared from the hunt and from foods gathered. Trade items were exchanged and wives were chosen between clans. This ensured that many clans were linked by marriage.

Several clans could join together to form a language group or tribe. All its members shared one language and one set of customs, beliefs and ceremonies. They were known by the name of their language. Eora, Cadigal and Dharuk were some of the language groups of the Sydney region.

There were over 200 languages spoken in Australia. There were not many speakers of most of the languages, so people learnt to speak at least one other language. Aboriginal languages sounded pleasant to European ears, but there were a number of sounds not heard in English.

Despite the differences of language and custom, all Aborigines shared a common world view. The world was created during the 'Dreaming' or 'Dreamtime' when mythical creatures created the landscape and all that inhabited it, as well as set life and death in motion. Aborigines believed that they were all descended from these creators, and therefore they were bound to the landscape and responsible for maintaining all its life forms.

RESOURCE SHEET 2D

Reading: Jigsaw Part D

Focus question:

Describe the system of law and order in Aboriginal society.

Aboriginal Culture: Law and Order

There was no formal government and no authorised leadership, elected or inherited, in Aboriginal society. Aboriginal law was based on family relationships and obligations. Decisions were made by older men and women who gained authority through increasing age, experience and strength of personality.

A worthy member of an Aboriginal community was one who took part in sacred ceremonies, was hard-working, generous and quick to perform his or her duties to the community. A good hunter, a ritual leader or a doctor was the ideal type of man. The ideal woman was a good gatherer, a loving mother and wife. She could become, in time, a leader in women's rituals, a doctor or a midwife.

The two main responsibilities in Aboriginal life were towards the land and each other. Performing the correct sacred ceremonies to the land ensured that the earth would supply the Aborigines with ample food and water. Rules of sharing meant that no member of the tribe was left to struggle or starve in hard times or in old age.

Children learnt correct behaviour by watching adults and being instructed by them. Older men instructed boys in religion and ceremonies, while older women taught girls how to behave as mothers and how to perform women's ceremonies. Children were valued and indulged by the community, and were rarely punished by their families.

Law, and punishment for those who broke it, varied across Australia. Generally, disputes over ownership of property were very rare. Private quarrels were usually settled on the spot.

For serious crimes — sacrilege, elopement, wrong marriage and blood feuds — the offender underwent the ordeal of spear throwing, with only his shield for protection. Satisfaction was usually gained when blood was drawn. If the offender refused to stand trial, he was outlawed and sometimes executed.

RESOURCE SHEET 2E

Reading: Jigsaw Part E

Focus question:

What was the role of women in Aboriginal culture?

Aboriginal Culture: The Role of Women

Women were the main food collectors, providing a larger proportion of the group's daily needs than the men. They were responsible for fetching drinking water and firewood, they cared for the children and helped build the family hut or shade. Their crafts included the manufacture of string bags, baskets, nets, mats and ornaments.

In most Aboriginal groups, women were kept out of many of the men's ceremonies. Women had their own ceremonies and rituals which were secret to them and no men could attend. These were about puberty, childbirth and love magic.

Girls were promised as wives when they were small children, or even before they were born. In some tribes, girls went to live with their husbands when they were ten years old. It was quite common for the couple to stay for some years near the wife's parents. It was important for a woman to have her first child in a place she knew.

If a young woman bore no children after some years of marriage, she might be given a child to adopt by the mother of several children. Having the status of a mother was very important to Aboriginal women.

As a woman grew older and had a number of children she became more important in the women's secret life. She also gained more influence in the affairs of her family, such as in the marriages of her children and grandchildren. Her death would be mourned, and followed by great ceremonies.

RESOURCE SHEET 3

Reading

Focus question

List all the ways Pemulwuy is referred to in the passage.

An Aboriginal Identity: Pemulwuy — Rainbow Warrior

Aborigines have their own culture and their own history. Many identify strongly with their own heroes just as we identify with ours.

The Legend of Pemulwuy is part of the oral history of the Aboriginal people of the east coast of Australia. It is also part of white Australians' shared history with the Aboriginal people.

Pemulwuy is honoured by the Aborigines as a great warrior who resisted the British invasion of their sacred tribal lands.

Despite his 12-year campaign against the Europeans settled around the Sydney district from 1790 to 1802, Pemulwuy's name did not appear in any Australian history books until the late 1980's.

Yet his memory has always been alive in the minds of Aboriginal Australians.

PEMULWUY: RAINBOW WARRIOR

> THE NAME PEMULWUY MEANS EARTH: MAN OF THE EARTH.
> DURING THE TIME OF CREATION, THE RAINBOW SERPENT MOVED OVER THE EARTH CREATING RIVERS AND WATER-HOLES AS IT WENT.
> IT IS IN HONOUR OF PEMULWUY THAT WE CALL HIM "THE RAINBOW WARRIOR"

Pemulwuy was born around 1756, a member of the Eora people, whose land covered some 1,800 square kilometres: from the Hawkesbury River in the north, to the Georges River in the South, and inland to the present towns of Campbelltown and Camden.

The first Aboriginal resistance leader, Pemulwuy conducted guerrilla warfare against the British invaders from 1790 to 1802. The firing of crops, attacks on farms, and the killing of stock were acts of war by the Aboriginal Australians who were determined not to surrender their land or independence to the British.

Pemulwuy was said to be responsible for every Aboriginal outrage against the settlers. In 1797 he led the Georges River and Parramatta tribes in attack on the settlement at Toongabbie. On the Georges River troops were posted to guard the crops day and night, and in the west, the whole of Prospect Hill was cleared under military protection.

cont.

Pursuit of the Aboriginal guerillas was said to be futile because of their "'extreme agility', and every means was to be used to drive them off. Large rewards were offered for the capture of Pemulwuy — 20 gallons (91 litres) of spirits for free men or a free pardon and a passage home for convicts. Finally the Governor declared that the 'utmost efforts' were to be made to take Pemulwuy ‘dead or alive’, and the Aborigines were told that when Pemulwuy was given up they would be 're-admitted of our friendship'.

As the British hunted Pemulwuy, Irish and other escaped convicts actually joined and fought beside Pemulwuy. The exact number of white men who became involved in the Eora struggle is not known. Finally, in 1802, Pemulwuy was shot dead by two settlers. His head was amputated and placed in a jar of spirits. In despatching Pemulwuy’s head to England, Governor Philip Gidley King wrote:

> ....Altho' a terrible pest to the colony, he was a brave and independent character ...
> (Governor King to Sir Joseph Banks, 1802, HR NSW)

Pemulwuy was a hostile and uncompromising enemy to the Europeans. It has taken 200 years for his story to be told in white Australian history texts but his leadership and death have always been preserved in Aboriginal legend as noble and heroic.

RESOURCE SHEET 4

Aboriginal Resistance: Pemulwuy

Aboriginal reaction to the white settlers taking their sacred tribal lands was to attempt to resist the invasion by force. The Aborigines burnt crops and buildings, slaughtered livestock and speared some Europeans.

The first Aboriginal resistance leader was a member of the Eora people, called Pemulwuy. His people lived in the Sydney district. From 1790 to 1802, Pemulwuy and his tribesmen conducted guerilla warfare against the British invaders. During this time, some 59 Europeans were killed.

The NSW government pursued Pemulwuy and his warriors for 12 years, offering large rewards for their capture. In 1802, Pemulwuy was shot dead by two settlers, his head placed in a jar of spirits and dispatched to England by the then Governor, Philip Gidley King.

Aboriginal resistance to white authority was not understood by the Europeans. The British told the Aborigines that they were protected by white laws, but this did not stop the shooting, poisoning, and enslavement of Aborigines. After Pemulwuy's death came many massacres of Aboriginal clans and tribes.

Aboriginal Australians were pushed as far beyond the frontiers of white settlement as possible. Their tribal life began to break down. Their resistance, like that of Pemulwuy at the beginning of the white invasion, failed because of the white man's superior weapons and, finally, superior numbers.

RESOURCE SHEET 5

Aboriginal Resistance: Pemulwuy

Title	**Aboriginal Resistance: Pemulwuy**
Generalised Statement	Aboriginal reaction to the white settlers taking their sacred tribal lands was to attempt to resist the invasion by force. The Aborigines burnt crops and buildings, slaughtered livestock and speared some Europeans.
Description	The first Aboriginal resistance leader was a member of the Eora people, called Pemulwuy. His people lived in the Sydney district. From 1790 to 1802, Pemulwuy and his tribesmen conducted guerilla warfare against the British invaders. During this time, some 59 Europeans were killed.
Description	The NSW government pursued Pemulwuy and his warriors for 12 years, offering large rewards for their capture. In 1802, Pemulwuy was shot dead by two settlers, his head placed in a jar of spirits and dispatched to England by the then Governor, Philip Gidley King.
Description	Aboriginal resistance to white authority was not understood by the Europeans. The British told the Aborigines that they were protected by white laws, but this did not stop the shooting, poisoning, and enslavement of Aborigines. After Pemulwuy's death came many massacres of Aboriginal clans and tribes.
Description	Aboriginal Australians were pushed as far beyond the frontiers of white settlement as possible. Their tribal life began to break down. Their resistance, like that of Pemulwuy at the beginning of the white invasion, failed because of the white man's superior weapons and, finally, superior numbers.

Aboriginal Resistance: Pemulwuy

Title	**Aboriginal Resistance: Pemulwuy**
Generalised Statement	Aboriginal reaction to the white settlers taking their sacred tribal lands was to attempt to resist the invasion by force. The Aborigines burnt crops and buildings, slaughtered livestock and speared some Europeans.
Description	The first Aboriginal resistance leader was a member of the Eora people, called Pemulwuy. His people lived in the Sydney district. From 1790 to 1802, Pemulwuy and his tribesmen conducted guerilla warfare against the British invaders. During this time, some 59 Europeans were killed.
Description	The NSW government pursued Pemulwuy and his warriors for 12 years, offering large rewards for their capture. In 1802, Pemulwuy was shot dead by two settlers, his head placed in a jar of spirits and dispatched to England by the then Governor, Philip Gidley King.
Description	Aboriginal resistance to white authority was not understood by the Europeans. The British told the Aborigines that they were protected by white laws, but this did not stop the shooting, poisoning, and enslavement of Aborigines. After Pemulwuy's death came many massacres of Aboriginal clans and tribes.
Description	Aboriginal-Australians were pushed as far beyond the frontiers of white settlement as possible. Their tribal life began to break down. Their resistance, like that of Pemulwuy at the beginning of the white invasion, failed because of the white man's superior weapons and, finally, superior numbers.

RESOURCE SHEET 7

Vocabulary: Lexical Chains

PEMULWUY – RAINBOW WARRIOR

THE NAME PEMULWUY MEANS EARTH: MAN OF THE EARTH. DURING THE TIME OF CREATION, THE RAINBOW SERPENT MOVED OVER THE EARTH CREATING RIVERS AND WATER-HOLES AS IT WENT. IT IS IN HONOUR OF PEMULWUY THAT WE CALL HIM "THE RAINBOW WARRIOR".

Pemulwuy was born around 1756, a member of the Eora people, whose land covered some 1,800 square kilometres: from the Hawkesbury River in the north, to the Georges River in the South, and inland to the present towns of Campbelltown and Camden.

The first Aboriginal resistance leader, Pemulwuy conducted guerrilla warfare against the British invaders from 1790 to 1802. The firing of crops, attacks on farms, and the killing of stock were acts of war by the Aboriginal Australians who were determined not to surrender their land or independence to the British.

Pemulwuy was said to be responsible for every Aboriginal outrage against the settlers. In 1797 he led the Georges River and Parramatta tribes in attack on the settlement at Toongabbie. On the Georges River troops were posted to guard the crops day and night, and in the west the whole of Prospect Hill was cleared under military protection.

Pursuit of the Aboriginal guerillas was said to be futile because of their "extreme agility", and every means was to be used to drive them off. Large rewards were offered for the capture of Pemulwuy – 20 gallons of spirits for free men or a free pardon and a passage home for convicts. Finally the Governor declared that the "utmost efforts" were to be made to take Pemulwuy 'dead or alive', and the Aboriginals were told that when Pemulwuy was given up he would be "readmitted of our friendship".

As the British hunted Pemulwuy, Irish and other escaped convicts actually joined and fought beside Pemulwuy. The exact number of white men who became involved in the Eora struggle is not known.

Finally in 1802, Pemulwuy was shot dead by two settlers. His head was amputated and placed in a jar of spirits. In despatching Pemulwuy's head to England, Governor Philip Gidley King wrote:

....Altho' a terrible pest to the colony, he was a brave and independent character ... (Governor King to Sir Joseph Banks, 1802, HR NSW)

A hostile and uncompromising enemy to the Europeans, it has taken 200 years for Pemulwuy's story to be told in white Australian history texts: but PEMULWUY's leadership and death have always been preserved in Aboriginal legend as noble and heroic.

RESOURCE SHEET 8

Version 1

Traditional Aboriginal Life

Title	**Traditional Aboriginal Life**
General Statement	I found Aboriginals thought it was important to belong to a family group. This had aunts, uncles etc. in it and they were called a clan. A tribe had lots of clans in it.
Description	In the clan, food was shared and trade items swapped. Everyone had the same language, customs, beliefs and ceremonies.
Description	Aboriginal law was based on family relationships and obligations and they were responsible to the land and each other. Older men and women made decisions because they and had more experience. Older men looked after the boys in religion and ceremonies, older women looked after the girls and showed them how to be good wives and mothers and how to do women's ceremonies.
Description	The most serious crimes for Aboriginals were sacrilege, elopement, wrong marriage and blood feuds. You could be punished by a spear throwing ordeal, exile or execution.
Description	In the tribe, women collect things like drinking water and firewood and cared for the children. They made string bags, baskets, nets, mats and ornaments. They had rituals for puberty, childbirth and love magic.
Description	Everyone believed in 'Dreamtime' when earth got created by creatures who weren't real. They believed they were bound to the land and respected the environment.
Description	Each clan lived in their own area and like Europeans felt at home in familiar places.

RESOURCE SHEET 9

Version 2

Traditional Aboriginal Life

Belonging to a family group was an important aspect of Aboriginal life. A family included aunts, uncles, cousins and grandparents. The extended family was part of a clan. Several clans formed a language group or tribe.

Within the clan, food was shared and trade items were exchanged. All members of a tribe shared one language and one set of customs, beliefs and ceremonies.

Aboriginal law was based on family relationships and obligations. The two main responsibilities in Aboriginal life were towards the land and each other. Decisions were made by older men and women who gained authority through age and experience. Older men instructed boys in religion and ceremonies, while older women taught girls how to become good wives and mothers and how to perform ritual women's ceremonies.

Sacrilege, elopement, wrong marriage and blood feuds were the most serious crimes in Aboriginal societies. Punishment varied from the ordeal of spear throwing to exile and execution.

Women were the main collectors in the tribe. They fetched drinking water and firewood, as well as caring for the children. Their crafts included the manufacture of string bags, baskets, nets, mats and ornaments. Women had their own rituals of ceremonies about puberty, childbirth and love magic.

All Aborigines believed in the 'Dreamtime' when mythical creatures created the earth. The believed that every Aborigine was bound to the land, and respected the environment.

Each clan lived within its own area, and just like Europeans, Aboriginals felt at home in familiar places.

ACCESSING LEARNING

history part two : recounting

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

PART TWO OVERVIEW - RECOUNTING

Provides background reading on the convict era, the convict 'stain'; convict women; the convict character; Mary Reibey; immigration in the 1800s; Caroline Chisholm. Case study requirement: a biography of a selected character.

	Content and Tasks	Assessment
Preparing the Context	Discussion of characteristics of convicts	Informal assessment
Developing the Context	Reading: *The Convict Era.* Source sheet: The Convict Character	Informal assessment of students' understanding of the convict era
Modelling	Teacher provides a model biography of Caroline Chisholm and leads the students in a deconstruction of stages and a cloze on time words.	Informal assessment of the students' ability to break a text into stages, identify the function each stage fulfils, and recognise genre-appropriate language
Developing the context	Reading: *Traditional Aboriginal Life*—identifying cohesive links and emotive words	Informal assessment of the students' understanding of immigration in the 1800s
Teacher-led Construction	Biography of Mary Reibey	Informal assessment of the students' ability to make use of appropriate text stages and language choices for the content
Student-led Construction	Students write a biography for own case studies.	Formal assessment of the students' ability to apply knowledge of the subject content and report writing based on the criteria established during the unit
Resource Sheets	Activity sheets and resource sheets are grouped as Resource Sheets at the end of each Part. They are referred to by number in the text.	

PART TWO - RECOUNTING

PREPARING THE CONTEXT

The teacher discusses characteristics of convicts with students.

DEVELOPING THE CONTEXT

The teacher hands out background readings and focus questions, on convicts (Resource Sheets 1, 2 and 3).

MODELLING

The teacher introduces a model biography of Caroline Chisolm (Resource Sheet 4) to the students, then has them undertake the following activities:

1. On an OHT the teacher and students identify and label the stages (Resource Sheet 5).
2. Students complete a cloze which has the time words removed (Resource Sheet 6).

DEVELOPING THE CONTEXT

In order to do a teacher-led construction on Mary Reibey the students need some background on immigration in the 1800s.

Class reads out a background passage on immigration (Resource Sheet 7). Discuss answers to focus question and answers to the following language questions.

In paragraphs 2 and 3 a number of phrases have been underlined. Some relate to Australia and some to Britain — place the phrases in appropriate columns and then state whether the phrase has a positive or negative bias about the country.

Britain

word	bias

Australia

word	bias

Look at the emotive words; what do they tell us about the writer's feelings about immigration?

In paragraph 4, what does using the term *commodity* in relation to women say about the role of women in Australia in the 1800s?

In paragraph 5, underline the words that have an emotive tone. What effect do these language choices have?

Resource Sheet 8, a passage on Mary Reibey provides a good opportunity to focus students on the cohesive devices in text. The following activity will allow the students to practise recognising them, which will support both their reading and writing. Be open and explicit with the students about the relevance of this activity to their skills development.

Cut into paragraphs for groups of students to read and reassemble Resource Sheet 9.

Ask them to identify the words they used to determine the order. When students get stuck or make a mistake trying to reassemble the passage, this question will usually assist them to get back on the right track. Students need to identify time words (eg dates) and lexical items that show a link (eg *transported, assigned*). Time words should be underlined, lexical items which help sequence the passage should be circled and linked.

Discuss these cohesive links (shown in Resource Sheet 10) and stress the importance of using these language features to write coherent and well sequenced texts.

TEACHER-LED CONSTRUCTION

The teacher jointly constructs with the students a biography of Mary Reibey, using the same methodology as described in the History Classroom Unit, Part One.

Version 1 becomes	**Version 2**
Correct staging	Correct staging and appropriate language
Mary Reibey had been a lot of things in her life. She started life as an orphan. She was a tomboy and convict. She was a mother of seven children and her grandson became Premier of Tasmania. Her husband died when she was 34 and she ran his business in shipping, farming and city real estate.	By the age of 68 Mary Reibey had been many things: orphan, tomboy, convict, mother of seven and grandmother to the future Premier of Tasmania, widow at 34, shrewd and successful operator in shipping, farming and city real estate.
She lost her mother and father when she was little.	She lost both parents at an early age.
At 13 she rode a horse without permission and was arrested.	She was arrested for taking an un authorised ride on someone else's horse.
When she got there.	On arrival.

Resource Sheet 11 is an extended Version 1 with the stages identified. Resource Sheet 12 is Version 2 in an extended form.

STUDENT-LED CONSTRUCTION

Students write biographies for their own case studies.

RESOURCE SHEET 1

Focus questions:

- Skim-read through this page for a background to the convict era.
- Read for detail the section, Convict Women. How were convict women treated?

The Convict Era

The 1780s to the 1850s is known as the Convict Era or Age in Australia. All states except South Australia received convicts during this period. A total of 187,981 convicts were transported to the colonies, 15% of these (24,960) being women.

The Convict Stain

Once convict transportation to Australia had begun, Britain looked on the new colony of Botany Bay as a place of horror. Stories of hell and Botany Bay were told to English children to frighten them into being good; and hardened criminals were said to weep openly on hearing they had been sentenced to transportation to Australia. Some convicts and administrators even agreed that hanging was more merciful than being sent to that 'doubly damned' penal settlement of Botany Bay.

This image of Australia as a miserable outpost of human suffering and vice was fuelled by stories in Britain about the brutality of the penal settlement : accounts of floggings and chain gangs, of general drunkenness and immorality, of vicious murders and cannibalism among the convicts were popular entertainment. Botany Bay was simply 'hell on earth'.

The image of Botany Bay led to a belief in the "convict stain" on Australian society. The common view was "once a convict, always a convict", and that a bad character was passed from one generation to the next. Even worse, was the belief that the free settlers could not avoid "catching" the vices of the convicts and emancipists (freed convicts). Visitors to Australia in the early 1800s remarked on the 'lack of integrity and honour' amongst the free settlers who had apparently abandoned themselves to the vices of Australian society.

Convict Women

The female convicts in particular were condemned, universally stereotyped as 'damned whores'. Once the women arrived in Australia — no matter what their crime — they were seen and treated as prostitutes and almost slave labour. One of the greatest problems for the female convicts was their lack of numbers: only 15% of all convicts transported were women, and in the early 1800s, women were outnumbered by men seven to one.

Despite being seen as immoral and lazy, convict women did provide the new colony with a necessary female labour force working as domestic servants, spinners, farm labourers, nurses, cooks and laundresses. Many of the convict women either married or established long standing defacto relationships and contributed to family income when necessary.

RESOURCE SHEET 2

Reading 2

A New Image

A new image of Australia as a land of opportunity began to emerge in the 1840s. Admiration was expressed for this new country where work opportunities now seemed attractive to the British population. Rumours of rags-to-riches convict stories also began to circulate in Britain. Finally, the convict stain seemed to be lifting from the new colonies.

Modern Australians now look back on the convict era with pride. We talk about the struggle of our ancestors against their chains and the environment. Many of our Australian heroes are men and women who did manage to succeed in the colonies despite coming to Australia as convicts. Names such as Francis Greenway, James Ruse, William Redfern, Mary Reibey, and Molly Morgan are instantly recognized: these are men and women we admire for, among other things, beating the system which condemned them. They are symbols of that egalitarian spirit we see as Australian —
'a fair go for all', 'no class distinctions'!

Reference: R. White, 1975, in *Damned Whores and God's Police, Inventing Australia*, A. Summers, Sydney, 1984

RESOURCE SHEET 3

Source Sheet: The 'convict character'

Focus question

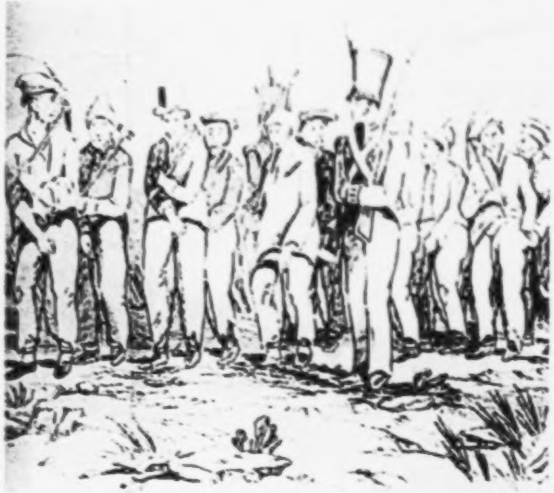
What general characteristics of convicts can you extract from these eyewitness accounts of convict life?

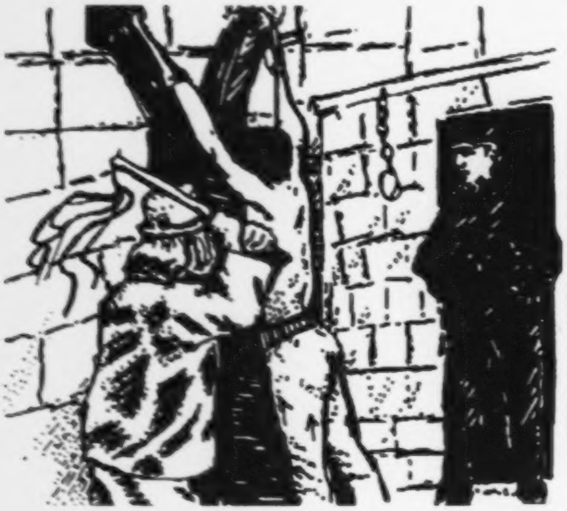
Trench, Captain W., Complete Account of the Settlement at Port Jackson, in New South Wales, etc., 1793, p. 3.

On the convicts the burden fell, yet heavier necessity compelled us to allot to them the most slavish and laborious employment…

Severity was rarely exercised on them; and justice was administered without partiality or discrimination. Their ration of provisions, except in being debarred from an allowance of spirits, was equal to that which the marines received. Under these circumstances I record with pleasure, that they behaved better than had been predicted of them. To have expected sudden and complete reformation of conduct, were romantic and chimerical.

Convicts J.E. Tate
Discovering Australian History
Jacaranda 1970.





Cascades Factory — in Tasmania convict women showed Reverend Bedford what they think of him

B. Fitzpatrick, The Australian People 1788-1945 (1954)
Melbourne University Press: Melbourne

These women had quite enough of Mr Bedford; they were compelled to listen to his long stupid sermons, and knew this character, and that he loved roast turkey and ham with a bottle or two of port wine much better than he loved his Bible, and when he commenced to preach they with one accord endeavoured to cough him down, and upon wardens proclaiming silence they all with one impulse turned round, raised their clothes and smacked their posteriors with a loud report. The Governor was shocked, and parson was horror struck, the Aide de Camp [soldier] laughed aloud, and even the ladies could not control their laughter.

The Changing Australia
Sue Fabian 1978 - Rigby

Next was tied up was Paddy Galvin, a young boy about twenty years of age. He was ordered to get three hundred lashes. He got one hundred on the back and you could see his back bone between his shoulder blades, then the Doctor order him to be flog on the Calves of his legs. He got one hundred there and as much as a whimper he never gave. They asked him if he would tell where the pikes was hid, he said he did not know, and if he did he would not tell. 'You may as well hang me'. So they put him in the Cart and sent him to the Hospital.

Punishment given to Irish rebels in Parramatta, Sydney Gazette, 1803

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RESOURCE SHEET 4

Biography

CAROLINE CHISHOLM (1808—1877)

Caroline Chisholm was born at Wotton in England. As a child she noticed the suffering caused by the Industrial Revolution. Her family was well known for its hospitality and care.

In 1830, she married Archibald Chisholm and moved with him to India in 1832. There, Caroline founded a school in Madras.

The Chisholms moved on to Australia in 1838, and settled in Sydney. Caroline was immediately concerned about the difficulties that faced immigrants, especially young women and their families.

Using much of her own money and with some official help from the Governor, Sir George Gipps, she opened a female immigrants home in Sydney in 1841. In the home, she gave shelter to arriving women migrants. She also worked hard to find suitable employment for the migrants. By 1846 she had looked after more than 11,000 people.

In 1846 she went back to England where three years later she set up the Family Colonization Loan Society. The Society was able to lend money to migrants for passage fares. When Caroline returned to Melbourne in 1854, she received a public welcome. She then toured the goldfields of Victoria with her husband and set up shelters for miners and their families.

She moved with her family to Sydney in 1859. She gave lectures on settling the land, early closing for shops, better housing conditions, and shorter working hours. Her health declined, and in 1866 she returned to Britain with her family. She died in London in 1877.

RESOURCE SHEET 5

Stages

Title	CAROLINE CHISHOLM (1808–1877)
Orientation: Early Life	Caroline Chisholm was born at Wotton in England. As a child she noticed the suffering caused by the Industrial Revolution. Her family was well known for its hospitality and care.
Event	In 1830, she married Archibald Chisholm and moved with him to India in 1832. There, Caroline founded a school in Madras.
Event: Helping Immigrants in Australia	The Chisholms moved on to Australia in 1838, and settled in Sydney. Caroline was immediately concerned about the difficulties that faced immigrants, especially young women and their families.
Event	Using much of her own money and with some official help from the Governor, Sir George Gipps, she opened a female immigrants home in Sydney in 1841. In the home, she gave shelter to arriving women migrants. She also worked hard to find suitable employment for the migrants. By 1846 she had looked after more than 11,000 people.
Event	In 1846 she went back to England where three years later she set up the Family Colonization Loan Society. The Society was able to lend money to migrants for passage fares. When Caroline returned to Melbourne in 1854, she received a public welcome. She then toured the goldfields of Victoria with her husband and set up shelters for miners and their families.
Event: Later Life	She moved with her family to Sydney in 1859. She gave lectures on settling the land, early closing for shops, better housing conditions, and shorter working hours. Her health declined, and in 1866 she returned to Britain with her family. She died in London in 1877.

RESOURCE SHEET 6

Cloze

CAROLINE CHISHOLM (1808–1877)

Caroline Chisholm was born at Wotton in England. As a child she noticed the suffering caused by the Industrial Revolution. Her family was well known for its hospitality and care.

______________1830, she married Archibald Chisholm and moved with him to India
______________1832. There, Caroline founded a school in Madras.

The Chisholms moved on to Australia ______________1838, and settled in Sydney. Caroline was ______________concerned about the difficulties that faced immigrants, especially young women and their families.

Using much of her own money and with some official help from the Governor, Sir George Gipps, she opened a female immigrants home in Sydney ______________1841. In the home, she gave shelter to arriving women migrants. She also worked hard to find suitable employment for the migrants. ______________1846 she had looked after more than 11,000 people.

______________1846 she went back to England ______________three years later she set up the Family Colonization Loan Society. The Society was able to lend money to migrants for passage fares. ______________Caroline returned to Melbourne in 1854, she received a public welcome. She ______________toured the goldfields of Victoria with her husband and set up shelters for miners and their families.

She moved with her family to Sydney ______________1859. She gave lectures on settling the land, early closing for shops, better housing conditions, and shorter working hours. Her health declined and ______________1866 she returned to Britain with her family. She died in London in 1877.

RESOURCE SHEET 7

Reading

Focus question:

Why did immigrants choose to come to Australia in the 1800s?

Building a Nation: Immigration in the 1800s

From 1832 various schemes of assisted immigration were set up and by 1850 had attracted about 100,000 migrants to NSW and Van Diemen's Land, while another 50,000 had paid their own way.

These British settlers were lured to Australia by the image of this new continent as a land of opportunity. Australia was no longer the land of convicts, but the 'land of the immigrant'. By 1851, convicts represented only 1.5% of the European population of NSW, emancipists 14% and free settlers 41% (currency or Australian born were the other 34.5%).

Many people were attracted to the colonies by the prospects of leaving behind the problems of their old life and starting anew. England's unemployed and slum dwellers saw Australia as the "workers paradise" where jobs and decent conditions were to be had. The many Irish immigrants escaped fear of starvation and the religious war between Catholics and Protestants by immigrating to the colonies. the 'coloured' immigrants from India, China and the South Sea Islands provided cheap labour as the number of convicts decreased.

Despite this influx of settlers, the number of women in the colonies remained below that of their male counterparts. Women were, therefore, a scarce and valuable 'commodity'. They would marry, raise families, and reform the behaviour of the men in the colonies. Government advertising campaigns in Britain tempted single women to immigrate to the colonies by highlighting the availability of suitable husbands and paid domestic work.

During the early years of colonial immigration migrants had to endure crowded passage to the colonies on emigrant ships and lack of adequate accommodation on reaching Australia. Families and single women were most desperate for shelter. It was not until the 1860s that these dreadful conditions were remedied by the colonial governments.

Through migration and natural increase, the population of the colonies grew from 437,665 in 1851 to almost 2 million in 1875. In this time, two important changes had occurred: the sexes were now almost equally balanced and the majority of the population was Australian-born.

RESOURCE SHEET 8

Reading

Mary Reibey: Convict and Businesswoman

By the age of 68 Mary Reibey had been many things: orphan, tomboy, convict, mother of seven and grandmother to a future Premier of Tasmania, widow at 34, shrewd and successful operator in shipping, farming and city real estate.

Born Mary Haydock at Lancashire, England, on 12 May 1777, she lost both parents at an early age and was in the care of her grandmother when, aged 13, she was arrested for taking an unauthorised ride on someone else's horse.

For this behaviour in 18th century England, Mary was convicted of stealing, and at 15 found herself transported to the penal colony of NSW.

On arrival, Mary was assigned as nursemaid to the family of Major Francis Grose, of the NSW Corps, who was also Lieutenant-Governor of the colony. While in service she met Thomas Reibey and married him in 1794.

Mary's husband was a farmer in the Hawkesbury River district and a partner in a shipping and merchant operation. His death in 1811 left Mary a widow with three daughters and four sons and quite a large business to run.

Mary had already participated in her husband's property purchases in the Rocks area and in Macquarie Place, and had managed his interests in wines and spirits and other merchandise. Now she increased the trading fleet from four ships to six, took more warehouse space, and as well assumed control over the management of the Hawkesbury farms plus a further 200 acres granted her by Governor Macquarie. She also bought rural property for her sons, Thomas (the father of the future Premier) and James.

In 1820, Mary took three of her daughters to England for a year's stay and that too turned into a productive business trip.

Back in NSW, Mary continued her prosperous investments in Sydney real estate — much of the 20th century central business district of Sydney stands on what was Reibey land. Yet she still found time to devote to good works on behalf of church and charitable organisations and to exercise her influence on the political and social issues of the day.

Mary Reibey died at her home in Newtown on 30 May 1855. She had certainly travelled far from the poverty of her convict sentence.

RESOURCE SHEET 9

Assembly activity

Mary Reibey: Convict and Businesswoman

By the age of 68 Mary Reibey had been many things: orphan, tomboy, convict, mother of seven and grandmother to a future Premier of Tasmania, widow at 34, shrewd and successful operator in shipping, farming and city real estate.

Born Mary Haydock at Lancashire, England, on 12 May 1777, she lost both parents at an early age and was in the care of her grandmother when, aged 13, she was arrested for taking an unauthorised ride on someone else's horse.

For this behaviour in eighteenth century England, Mary was convicted of stealing, and at 15 found herself transported to the penal colony of NSW.

On arrival, Mary was assigned as nursemaid to the family of Major Francis Grose, of the NSW Corps, who was also Lieutenant-Governor of the colony. While in service she met Thomas Reibey and married him in 1794.

Mary's husband was a farmer in the Hawkesbury River district and a partner in a shipping and merchant operation. His death in 1811 left Mary a widow with three daughters and four sons and quite a large business to run.

Mary had already participated in her husband's property purchases in the Rocks area and in Macquarie Place, and had managed his interests in wines and spirits and other merchandise. Now she increased the trading fleet from four ships to six, took more warehouse space, and as well assumed control over the management of the Hawkesbury farms plus a further 200 acres granted her by Governor Macquarie. She also bought rural property for her sons, Thomas (the father of the future Premier) and James.

In 1820, Mary took three of her daughters to England for a year's stay and that too turned into a productive business trip.

Back in NSW, Mary continued her prosperous investments in Sydney real estate — much of the twentieth century central business district of Sydney stands on what was Reibey land. Yet she still found time to devote to good works on behalf of church and charitable organisations and to exercise her influence on the political and social issues of the day.

Mary Reibey died at her home in Newtown on 30 May 1855. She had certainly travelled far from the poverty of her convict sentence.

RESOURCE SHEET 11

Teacher-led construction Version 1

Title	Mary Reibey
Orientation: Early Life	Mary Reibey had been a lot of things in her life. She started life as an orphan. She was a tomboy and a convict. She was a mother of seven children and her grandson became Premier of Tasmania. Her husband died when she was 34 and she ran his business in shipping, farming and city real estate.
Event	Mary Reibey was born Mary Haydock in Lancashire, England, on 12 May 1777. She lost her mother and father when she was little and was looked after by her grandmother. At 13 she rode a horse without permission and was arrested. Because of this at this time Mary was sent to Australia which was a penal colony.
Event: Life in Australia	When she go there she was sent to be a nursery maid to Major Francis Grose's family. The major was in the NSW Corps and Lieutenant-Governor of the colony. She met and married Thomas Reiby while she was working there.
Event	Thomas Reibey was a farmer in the Hawkesbury River District. He was a partner in a ship and merchant business. He died in 1811 and left Mary with 3 daughters and 4 sons and a big business to run.
Event: Achievements	Mary had been a part of her husband's purchasing property in the Rocks area and in Macquarie Place and she had managed his interests in wines and spirits and other things. She went from four to six ships, got more warehouses and took over managing the Hawkesbury farms and an extra 200 acres were given to her from Governor Macquarie. She bought properties in the country for her sons, Thomas (whose son became Premier) and James.
Event	In 1820, Mary went to England with three of her daughters for a year and she made that a productive trip for business.
Event	When she came back to NSW, Mary kept up her investments in Sydney real estate which were doing well. The 20th century central business district of Sydney is on Mary Reiby's land. She gave time to doing good works for the church and charities and she had an influence on politics and social issues.
Event	Mary Reibey died at home in Newtown on 30 May, 1855, a long way from where she began.

RESOURCE SHEET 12

Teacher-led Construction Version 2

MARY REIBEY: CONVICT AND BUSINESSWOMAN

By the age of 68 Mary Reibey had been many things: orphan, tomboy, convict, mother of seven and grandmother to a future Premier of Tasmania, widow at 34, shrewd and successful operator in shipping, farming and city real estate.

Born Mary Haydock at Lancashire, England, on 12 May, 1777, she lost both parents at an early age and was in the care of her grandmother when, aged 13, she was arrested for taking an unauthorised ride on someone else's horse.

For this behaviour in eighteenth century England, Mary was convicted of stealing and at 15 found herself transported to the penal colony of NSW.

On arrival, Mary was assigned as nursemaid to the family of Major Francis Grose, of the NSW Corps, who was also Lieutenant - Governor of the colony. While in service she met Thomas Reibey and married him in 1794.

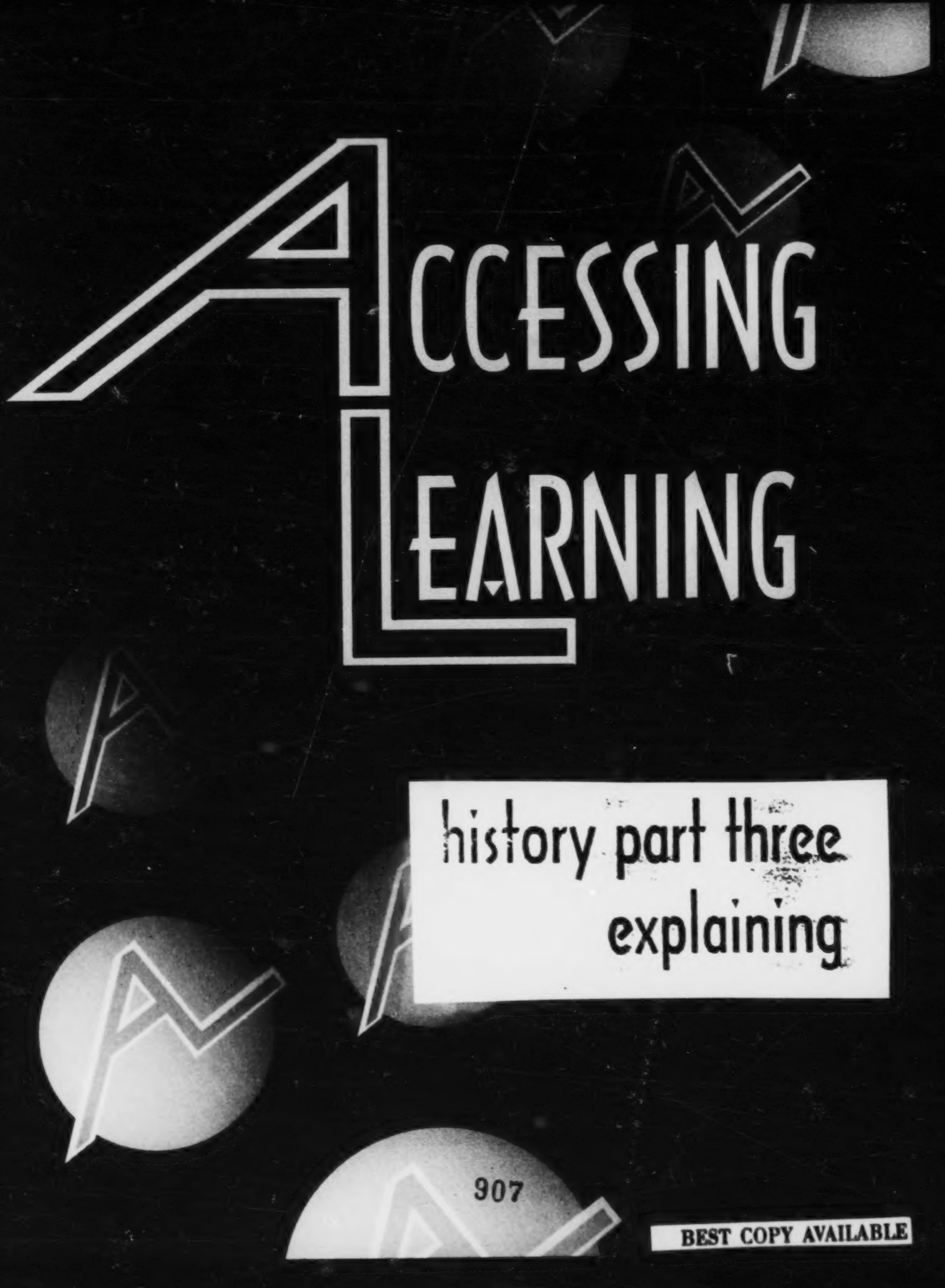
Mary's husband was a farmer in the Hawkesbury River district and a partner in a shipping and merchant operation. His death in 1811 left Mary a widow with three daughters and four sons and quite a large business to run.

Mary had already participated in her husband's property purchases in the Rocks area and in Macquarie Place, and had managed his interests in wines and spirits and other merchandise. Now she increased the trading fleet from four ships to six, took more warehouse space, and as well assumed control over the management of the Hawkesbury farms plus a further 200 acres granted her by Governor Macquarie. She also bought rural property for her sons, Thomas (the father of the future Premier) and James.

In 1820, Mary took three of her daughters to England for a year's stay and that too turned into a productive business trip.

Back in NSW, Mary continued her prosperous investments in Sydney real estate — much of the twentieth century central business district of Sydney stands on what was Reibey land. Yet she still found time to devote to good works on behalf of church and charitable organisations and to exercise her influence on the political and social issues of the day.

Mary Reibey died at her home in Newtown on 30 May 1855. She had certainly travelled far from the poverty of her convict sentence.



ACCESSING LEARNING

history part three
explaining

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PART THREE OVERVIEW - EXPLAINING

Provides background reading on the issues that led to the Eureka uprising and the events that followed.

	Content and Tasks	Assessment
Preparing the Context	Discussion question on the gold rushes	Informal assessment of students' understanding of gold rush era
Developing the Context	Students read: *Licences, Land and the Vote* and use language activities to gather information for a time-line and a summary.	Informal assessment of students' understanding of conditions in the goldfields and issues of concern for the miners
Modelling	Teacher provides a model account and deconstructs stages, reference words and connectives.	Informal assessment of the students' ability to break a text into stages, identify the function each stage fulfils, and recognise genre-appropriate language, in particular the Given/New structure for building information. Student self-assessment of dictogloss
Teacher-led Construction	Teacher and students write an account: *Why the government in Victoria resisted the demands of the miners.*	Informal assessment of the students' ability to make use of appropriate text stages and language choices for the content
Student-led Construction	Students write accounts for their case studies that explain the significance of their chosen character in the events the student describes.	Formal assessment of the students' ability to apply knowledge of the subject content to a successful account, based on the criteria established during the unit.
Resource Sheets	Activity sheets and resource sheets are grouped as Resource Sheets at the end of each Part. They are referred to by number in the text.	

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PART THREE - EXPLAINING

PREPARING THE CONTEXT

Discussion question:

What people and events during the period of the gold rushes come to mind?

DEVELOPING THE CONTEXT

Hand out Resource Sheet 1: *Licences, Land and the Vote.*

Language Activities

Teacher asks students to:

- skim for overview;
- scan for key dates and names;
- complete the activity which highlights the function of the first sentence in the paragraph;
- list in chronological order the key events that led to Eureka and place on a time-line; and
- summarise the miners' grievances.

Reading of the source sheet *Peter Lalor and Eureka* (Resource Sheet 2)

Language Activity

Ask students to use context clues and write in their own words the meaning of the following words or phrases:

- *the diggers stood firm to a man*
- *taking up arms*
- *the standard*
- *uncovered as a token of respect to their flag*
- *convened*
- *deemed*
- *confabulation*
- *insurgents*
- *emblazoned*

Resource Sheet 2 has another comprehension activity.

MODELLING

The teacher deconstructs the stages of the model account (*Eureka: Why Was There A Rebellion?* with the students using an OHT of Resource Sheets 4 and 5.

Dictogloss

For further information on dictogloss refer to Module Six: Dictogloss.

1. The students have been prepared for the topic of Eureka in the dictogloss by the deconstruction of the model.

2. Group the students and prepare them to note key words.

3. Read the following section of the model at normal speed. Students are to listen but not write.

> In 1854, a series of events led to an armed rebellion. The diggers resented the mining licence as an unfair tax on both successful and unsuccessful miners. It was collected by police, who were very cruel in their treatment of the diggers.
>
> The diggers wanted the vote so that they could elect people who would make laws fairer to miners. They also wanted to be able to buy land which the wealthy squatters in the government did not want to make available to them.

4. Reread, pausing slightly at end of each sentence while students note key words.

5. In groups, students reconstruct the text as best they can, while the teacher gives guidance to groups as needed.

6. Each group writes their version down a column on the blackboard.

7. Together teacher and students explore versions on the board and adjust.

Commentary

In order to guide students during steps 6 and 7, the teacher needs to understand the essential language structure which underlies this kind of explanatory writing, that is, the structure of Given and New which builds information up as the text proceeds.

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Following is a break-up of the dictogloss Given and New structure:

Given	**New**
In 1854,	a series of events led to an armed rebellion
The diggers	resented the mining licence as an unfair tax on both successful and unsuccessful miners
It was collected	by police
who	were very cruel in their treatment of the diggers
The diggers	wanted to vote
so that they	could elect people
who	would make laws fairer to miners
They	also wanted to be able to buy land
which	the wealthy squatters in the government did not want to make available to them.

The student versions of the text may well confuse the relationships between the participants, for example, the connection between the armed rebellion and the diggers, and the relationship between the mining licences and the unfair tax. We know, for example, that when the author talks about an unfair tax in the position Given in the sentence immediately after the mining licence in the New of the previous sentence, that the unfair tax refers to the mining licence.

In other words, as readers, we use our implicit knowledge of Given/New to follow the build-up of knowledge. By exploring this, teachers can assist students not only to accurately interpret these relationships in reading, but also to use it to clearly sequence explanations.

Cloze

Resource Sheet 6 is a cloze focusing on reference words and connectives.

TEACHER-LED CONSTRUCTION

The teacher jointly constructs with students an explanation of why the government in Victoria resisted the demands of the miners.

Version 1 Correct staging	becomes **Version 2** Correct staging and appropriate language
The diggers on the goldfields in Victoria didn't like paying licence fees that cost a lot of money and they didn't like the way the police treated them badly.	The diggers of the Victorian goldfields resented paying expensive licence fees and the harsh treatment by the police.
wanted to be able to vote...	power to vote.

Extended versions showing reworking for stages and appropriate language are on Resource Sheets 7 and 8.

STUDENT-LED CONSTRUCTION

The students now prepare accounts for their case studies that explain the significance of the chosen character in the events the student describes.

Those students who have chosen Peter Lalor or another significant character from the Gold Rush era may chose to write an account on the following topic:

'Account for the willingness of the gold miners to take a stand at Eureka.'

RESOURCE SHEET 1

Reading

Licences, Land and the Vote

The debate over the political future of the colonies was in full swing when gold was discovered. Australia was in the world news for the first time since its founding. The Aborigines were pushed further aside by this new invasion of their lands, and although most of the newcomers came to make their fortunes and leave, many stayed.

There were many problems on the gold fields which, by the mid-1850s, teemed with men and women from many countries but all eager for that "lucky strike". The most important causes of unhappiness among the diggers were:

(a) the cost of licences (to mine) and the way they were enforced;

(b) the fact that the diggers could not vote;

(c) the fact that the diggers wanted to use the gold they found to buy land but discovered it was unavailable to them.

Licences

The governments of NSW and Victoria decided that a licence costing quite a large amount was to be made compulsory for all diggers. If the cost was high enough, it was hoped that many would be discouraged from joining the rush for gold. Apart from the revenue raised by this fee, the concern lay with the future of the colonies if farms and towns, as well as families, were to be deserted for extended periods of time.

The revenue from these licence fees was used to run the gold fields and to take gold back to the cities. Diggers did not like the fact that they had to pay this fee whether they found gold or not. Two thousand diggers at Sofala in November, 1851, declared "the present system of licensing is unfair in principle, being a tax upon labour and not upon produce".

They also felt the governments were charging too much for the licences and that the police were often very brutal when checking the miners for their licences. If a digger was found to be without a licence he might be thrown in gaol with convicted criminals, or chained to a tree in the sun and insulted by the police. These police became known as the 'traps' or 'joes' and were feared, hated and mistrusted by most of the diggers.

Land and the Vote

As the main gold fields became more crowded, there was less gold for everyone and it became harder to find enough money to pay for licences—Victoria had fixed its fee at two pounds for a three month licence.

cont.

RESOURCE SHEET 1 (continued)

Reading

Miners wanted to be able to vote for members of the Legislative Council, which made the laws affecting their livelihood on the gold fields. The government was in the hands of rich, male squatters and British appointed officials. The diggers wanted to vote for men who would make laws fairer for the miners.

In particular, the miners wanted to be able to buy land and start farms. However, in NSW and Victoria, the Squatters held most land under pastoral licences or leases. They were rich and powerful and were well entrenched in the parliaments. So the governments of these two states would not put any land up for sale.

It was not until 1860 that the first Selection Act (a law making land available for small farms) was passed in Victoria, and this proved successful. Miners found themselves competing with former squatters or large landowners for these much smaller parcels of land.

The problems in Victoria formed the basis of the rebellion of miners against their government in December, 1854.

References: D. & G. Garden, *Australians in the Landscape,* Melbourne, 1987
S. Fabian, *The Changing Australians,* Sydney, 1978
M. Bowering & L. Soper, *Heads & Tales - Story of Australia,* McGraw Hill, 1977

RESOURCE SHEET 2

Source Sheet: Peter Lalor and Eureka

Peter Lalor, the hero of Eureka

On the day a meeting of the members of the "Ballarat Reform League" was speedily convened, the committee members hastening to Diamond's store where they elected as their leader one Peter Lalor, an Irishman who presented to them the qualities of leadership which they deemed necessary for the success of their cause.

Following a confabulation between members, the insurgents, about five hundred in number, whose courage and companionship we hesitate to dispute, then swore as one man their faith in the League and the Southern Cross, their flag of honour.

The Southern Cross, a blue silk standard upon which a silver cross was emblazoned, was hoisted atop the flagpole which extended some eighty feet towards the Heavens.

According to our correspondent, who was able to observe the manner of the meeting, Peter Lalor then proceeded to address his men thus:

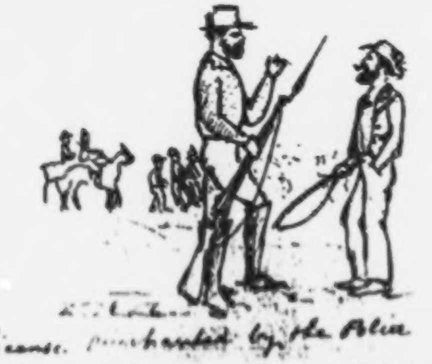
"It is my duty now to swear you in, and to take with you the oath to be faithful to the Southern Cross. Hear me with attention. The man who, after this solemn oath, does not stand by our standard is a coward in heart. I order all persons who do not intend to take the oath to leave the meeting at once".

The diggers stood firm to a man, and prepared to take the oath which would bind them together for a cause which they believed in to the point of taking up arms for.

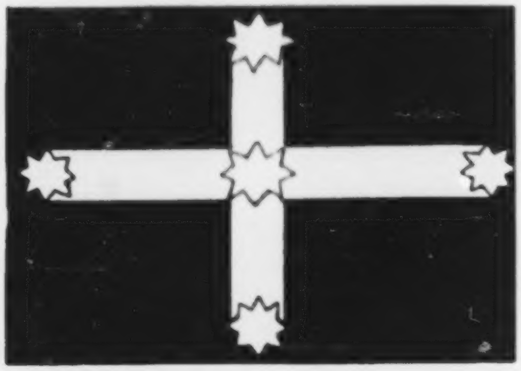
Then Peter Lalor, holding a rifle in one hand, and pointing his other hand toward the standard, addressed his men again, thus:

"We swear by the Southern cross to stand truly by each other and fight to defend our rights and liberties".

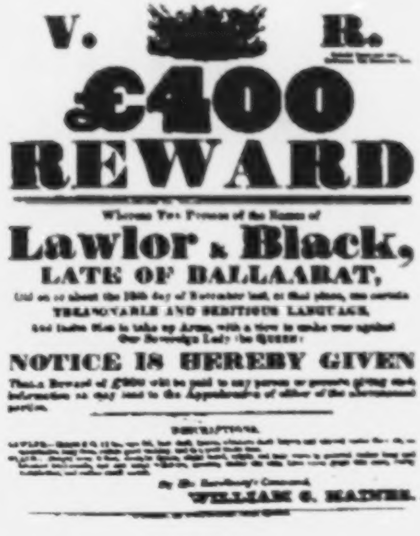
Uncovered as a token of respect to their flag, the men echoed in unison "Amen".


License. hunted by the Police

A policeman checking a licence. Everyone on the fields had to have a licence or an exemption. From diary of Edward Snell. Courtesy: La Trobe Library



The Eureka flag.



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REWARD

Whereas Two Persons of the Names of

Lawlor & Black,

LATE OF BALLAARAT,

TREASONABLE AND SEDITIOUS LANGUAGE

NOTICE IS HEREBY GIVEN

DESCRIPTIONS.

WILLIAM C. HAINES.

Reward Notice for Lalor and Black.

RESOURCE SHEET 3

Language activity

Replace the appropriate first sentence from the three below in each space.

Licences

....

If the cost was high enough, it was hoped that many would be discouraged from joining the rush for gold. Apart from the revenue raised by this fee, the concern lay with the future of the colonies if farms and towns, as well as families, were to be deserted for extended periods of time.

....

Diggers did not like the fact that they had to pay this fee whether they found gold or not. Two thousand diggers at Sofala in November, 1851, declared "the present system of licensing is unfair in principle, being a tax upon labour and not upon produce".

....

If a digger was found to be without a licence he might be thrown in gaol with convicted criminals, or chained to a tree in the sun and insulted by the police. These police became known as the 'traps' or 'joes' and were feared, hated and mistrusted by most of the diggers.

1. The revenue from these licence fees was used to run the gold fields and to take gold back to the cities.
2. They also felt the governments were charging too much for the licences and that the police were often very brutal when checking the miners for their licences.
3. The governments of NSW and Victoria decided that a licence costing quite a large amount was to be made compulsory for all diggers.

RESOURCE SHEET 4

Model

EUREKA: WHY WAS THERE A REBELLION?

The Eureka Stockade incident is one of the most famous armed clashes which has occurred between Europeans in Australian history. On 3 December, 1854, 30 diggers and five soldiers died in this battle, which has come to represent a turning point in Australia's political development.

In 1854, a series of events led to an armed rebellion. The diggers resented the mining licence as an unfair tax on both successful and unsuccessful miners. It was collected by police who were very cruel in their treatment of the diggers.

The diggers wanted the vote so that they could elect people who would make laws fairer to miners. They also wanted to be able to buy land which the wealthy squatters in the government did not want to make available to them.

When three diggers were arrested for protesting about such grievances, the diggers formed the Ballarat Reform League and demanded the release of these men. They also issued a list of demands for reform of goldfields' administration.

After a small clash between miners and troops, a few hundred men joined together under the leadership of Peter Lalor and built a stockade at Eureka. Lalor was an Irish miner. He resented the authority of the Victorian government which he saw as full of 'wealthy Englishmen' who were only concerned with exploiting the poor workers of the colonies. There was traditional animosity between the Irish and the English.

The soldiers won this battle and Lalor went into hiding; his arm, injured during the battle, was eventually amputated. The diggers, however, won popular support and Eureka helped speed up changes. In 1855 licences in Victoria were stopped and, later, land was opened up for sale. The 13 miners charged with treason were found innocent.

Peter Lalor was elected to Parliament in 1856 and served for 32 years. His success reflected the changing attitudes of colonists, and those in authority, in the second half of the 19th century. Australians demanded and moved closer to democracy. Eureka is a symbol of this political change.

RESOURCE SHEET 5

Stages

Title

EUREKA: WHY WAS THERE A REBELLION?

Phenomenon

The Eureka Stockade incident is one of the most famous armed clashes which has occurred between Europeans in Australian history. On 3 December, 1854, 30 diggers and five soldiers died in this battle which has come to represent a turning point in Australia's political development.

Explanation Sequence

In 1854, a series of events led to an armed rebellion. The diggers resented the mining licence as an unfair tax on both successful and unsuccessful miners. It was collected by police who were very cruel in their treatment of the diggers.

The diggers wanted the vote so that they could elect people who would make laws fairer to miners. They also wanted to be able to buy land which the wealthy squatters in the government did not want to make available to them.

When three diggers were arrested for protesting about such grievances, the diggers formed the Ballarat Reform League and demanded the release of these men. They also issued a list of demands for reform of goldfields' administration.

After a small clash between miners and troops, a few hundred men joined together under the leadership of Peter Lalor and built a stockade at Eureka. Lalor was an Irish miner. He resented the authority of the Victorian government which he saw as full of 'wealthy Englishmen' who were only concerned with exploiting the poor workers of the colonies. There was traditional animosity between the Irish and the English.

Results

The soldiers won this battle and Lalor went into hiding, his arm injured during the battle was eventually amputated. The diggers, however, won popular support and Eureka helped speed up changes. In 1855 licences in Victoria were stopped and, later, land was opened up for sale. The 13 miners charged with treason were found innocent.

Peter Lalor was elected to Parliament in 1856 and served for 32 years. His success reflected the changing attitudes of colonists, and those in authority, in the second half of the 19th century. Australians demanded and moved closer to democracy. Eureka is a symbol of this political change.

RESOURCE SHEET 6

Cloze

EUREKA: WHY WAS THERE A REBELLION?

The Eureka Stockade incident is one of the most famous armed clashes which has occurred between Europeans in Australian history. On 3 December, 1854, 30 diggers and five soldiers ....in this battle ....has come to represent a turning point in Australia's political development.

In 1854, a series of events led to an armed rebellion. The diggers resented the mining licence as an unfair tax on both successful and unsuccessful miners. ....was collected by police who were very cruel in ....treatment of the diggers.

The diggers wanted the vote ....that they could elect people ....would make laws fairer to miners. They ....wanted to be able to buy land ....the wealthy squatters in the government did not want to make available to ....

..........................three diggers were arrested for protesting about ....grievances, the diggers formed the Ballarat Reform League ....demanded the release of ....men. They ....issued a list of demands for reform of goldfields' administration.

............................a small clash between miners and troops, a few hundred men joined together under the leadership of Peter Lalor ....built a stockade at Eureka. Lalor was an Irish miner. ....resented the authority of the Victorian government ....he saw as full of 'wealthy Englishmen' who were only concerned with exploiting the poor workers of the colonies. There was traditional animosity between the Irish and the English.

The soldiers won ....battle and Lalor went into hiding, his arm injured during the battle was eventually amputated. The diggers, ..., won popular support and Eureka helped speed up changes. ....1855 licences in Victoria were stopped and, ..., land was opened up for sale. The 13 miners charged with treason were found innocent.

Peter Lalor was elected to Parliament in 1856 and served for 32 years. .... success reflected the changing attitudes of colonists, and ....in authority, in the second half of the 19th century. Australians demanded and moved closer to democracy. Eureka is a symbol of ....political change.

RESOURCE SHEET 7

Teacher-led construction Version 1

Phenomenon	**Explain why the government in Victoria resisted the demands of the miners.** The diggers on the goldfields in Victoria didn't like paying licence fees that cost of lot of money and they didn't like the way the police treated them badly.
Explanation Sequence	Well what they wanted was a system to get licences that was fair and they wanted to be able to vote for men who would look out for what they were interested in in the legislative council. In Victoria, the government didn't want this so it could be the boss in the colony. What the licence fee brought in was used by the government to administer the goldfields. It didn't want to lose this. However, licences cost a lot and it looked like the government were using the licence fees to stop 'would-be-diggers' from rushing to the goldfields. So many people deserted the towns and farms hoping to get 'lucky strikes', the government was afraid of the economy getting affected and families getting wrecked because one or both parents were gone. If the government kept the fee high they thought they could keep in the number of people on the goldfields. The miners wanting the vote were not supported at all by the Victorian government. They thought miners would elect to the legislative council men who would go against them especially squatters. The squatters were wealthy and owned land. They were in control of the Victorian government. They didn't want miners to buy land because they'd be a problem to their land.
Result (intended)	The Victorian government tried to protect the colony and the money of its own members by not listening to the diggers, demands for fairer licence fees, the vote and land sales.

RESOURCE SHEET 8

Teacher-led construction Version 2

Explain why the government in Victoria resisted the demands of the miners.

The diggers on the Victorian gold fields resented paying expensive licence fees and the harsh treatment of the police. They demanded a fairer licensing system and the power to vote for men who could look after their interests in the legislative council. The government of Victoria resisted these demands to protect its own position in the colony.

The revenue raised by the licence fees was used by the government to administer the goldfields. It was not prepared to lose this income. However, the licences were very expensive, and the government appeared to be using these licence fees as a means of deterring 'would-be diggers' from rushing to the goldfields. With so many people deserting the towns and farms in hope of 'lucky strikes', the government feared the impact on the colony's economy, as well as the damage to families who were left without one or both parents. By keeping the fee high, the government hoped to contain or limit the number of people on the goldfields.

The miners' demands for the vote were strongly resisted by the Victorian government. If the miners gained the vote, they would elect to the legislative council men who would not only favour the miners, but also work against the squatters. The squatters were wealthy landowners who dominated the Victorian government. They did not want the miners to be able to purchase land and so threaten their land holdings.

In resisting the diggers' demands for fairer licence fees, the vote, and land sales, the Victorian government sought not only to protect the colony, but also the wealth of its own government members.

ACCESSING LEARNING

history part four
challenging

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PART FOUR OVERVIEW - CHALLENGING

Provides background reading on the bushranging era, with a special character study of Ned Kelly. Case study requirement: evaluation of the case study character in terms of the mandatory question: 'What qualities does your 19th century person have which are still valued as qualities of a typical Australian?'

	Content and Tasks	Assessment
Preparing the Context	Discussion of heroes recapped from previous units and Australian character readings	Informal assessment of students' understanding of concept of heroes and characteristics of heroes
Developing the Context	*Australia's Outlaws: The Bushrangers*—True/False comprehension *The True Australian?*—the key characteristics Ned Kelly possessed that Australians seem to respect *Life Story: Ned Kelly—One Perspective*—sequencing activity *Special Character Study: Ned Kelly 1854 - 1880*—students design a time line with key events from Ned Kelly's life.	Informal assessment of students' understanding of content through comprehension and sequencing, and peer assessment of accuracy of time line
Modelling	Deconstruction of model argument: *Bushrangers were only thieves and murderers. Do you agree?* and analysis of emotive words and writer bias. Discussion of heroes recapped from previous cycles and 'Australian character' readings	Informal assessment of the students' ability to break a text into stages, identify the function each stage fulfils, and recognise genre-appropriate language choices
Teacher-led Construction	Joint development of an argument essay: *Ned Kelly has those qualities which are typical of our national character. Do you agree?*	Informal assessment of the students' ability to make use of appropriate text stages and language choices for the content
Student-led Construction	Students refer to their case studies and information on two other characters from the unit of work and discuss what these three people have in common that makes them famous Australians. They write an account explaining qualities of their case study character which are still valued today.	Formal assessment of discussion essays and accounts, based on critera established during the unit.
Resource Sheets	Activity sheets and resource sheets are grouped as Resource Sheets at the end of each Part. They are referred to by number in the text.	

PART FOUR - CHALLENGING

PREPARING THE CONTEXT

Undertake a discussion of heroes, recapitulating from previous cycles. Comment on the Australian character and discuss. Three quotes are provided on Resource Sheet 1. The following qualities should be highlighted:

Quote 1

- individuality;
- independence;
- outspokenness;
- equality;
- lack of respect for authority.

Quote 2

- independence;
- pride;
- equality — classless society.

Quote 3

- freedom-loving;
- dislike of criticism.

DEVELOPING THE CONTEXT

The teacher hands out readings on bushrangers, each with at least one language activity.

Resource Sheet 2	*Australia's Outlaws: The Bushrangers*
Resource Sheet 3	*The true Australian?*
Resource Sheet 4	*Ned Kelly Cartoon*

Sequencing activity

The teacher provides the students with separate frames of a cut-up cartoon and students re-order in correct sequence.

Point out to students that they should look not only at the pictures to sequence the story, but also at the words, referencing and connectives that provide the clues to how the text should be sequenced.

Resource Sheet 5 *Ned Kelly 1845-1880: Character Study*
Students design a time-line with key events from Ned Kelly's life.

MODELLING

The teacher places a model argument (Resource Sheet 6) on OHT and deconstructs the stages and language features with the students. Resource Sheet 7 shows the stages.

Lead the students through a discussion of bias in the passage by means of the activity in Resource Sheet 8.

TEACHER-LED CONSTRUCTION

The teacher and students jointly construct an argument essay on 'Ned Kelly has those qualities which are typical of our national character.'

Students must use the survey report and the Gary Disher article *The True Australian?* to do this essay.

Help students to organise their material into stages and select appropriate language as illustrated below.

Version 1 becomes Correct staging	**Version 2** Correct staging and appropriate language
I think our great Australian hero is Ned Kelly	Ned Kelly is an Australian hero
... he has things about him Australians think everyone has	... he has qualities which Australians believe are typical of our national character
... which we value today	... are valued by Australians today
By going against police	In defying authority

Resource Sheets 9 and 10 show versions of this reworking.

STUDENT-LED CONSTRUCTION

Refer students to their case study characters and information on two other characters from this unit of work and discuss what the three people have in common that makes them famous Australians. Remember to point out to students that a discussion essay has a different staging from an argument essay, although the language features are similar.

Emphasise the two-sided nature of discussion genre by explicitly highlighting evidence **for** and evidence **against** the topic. Using an OHT, show students the alternative ways of presenting/organising their information, that is, all points **for** followed by all points **against**, (A) or **for** and **against** points alternately (B).

(A) Thesis	**(B) Thesis**
(Preview of Issue)	(Preview of Issue)
Argument for	Argument for
	Argument against
Argument for	Argument for
	Argument against
Argument for	Argument for
	Argument against
Argument against	Argument for
	Argument against
Argument against	Argument for
	Argument against
Argument against	Argument for
	Argument against
Conclusion	Conclusion

Having had the schematic structure of a discussion essay explained, students are now ready to write their own discussion essays.

Final task

Direct students to use information from previous cycles to answer the following question for their case studies:

'What qualities does your 19th century person have which are still valued as qualities of a typical Australian?'

This essay requires an account genre.

RESOURCE SHEET 1

Australian Character quotes

Comments on the Australian Character

Quote 1

"It is every man's business to take care of himself here. They are just as independent in their speech as in their actions... The Governor was yesterday riding along among this crew (ie, diggers), attended by one soldier; but not the slightest notice was taken of him, not even by a touch of the hat."

William Howitt, 1852

Quote 2

"The maid-servant in Victoria has the pertness, the independence, the mode of asserting by her manner that though she brings you up your hot water, she is just as good as you…"

Anthony Trollope, 1871

Quote 3

"These are free men and free women, free boys and free girls, every one of them, and will not take the whip from anything born."

Francis Adams, 1884–1890

Kaye Harman, *Australian Brought to Book*,
Boobook Publications, 1985

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RESOURCE SHEET 2

Reading 1

Australia's Outlaws: The Bushrangers

The first bushrangers were mainly escaped convicts who survived by raiding farmsteads and robbing travellers. They were originally known as 'bolters', but were called bushrangers from about 1806.

The harsh conditions and treatment convicts experienced drove some of them into the bush and a life on the run. For most of the bolters, life in the bush was tough and many barely survived. Hunger drove some to cannibalism (Alexander Pierce was one such), others to give themselves up. Still others died of starvation, were killed by Aboriginal people or were hanged when captured.

Feeling against law and authority grew during the gold rushes when the police carried out digger hunts to check for licences. Bushrangers would be warned of the presence of the police, and so helped to evade capture. It is from this period that we get the romantic image of the bushranger, celebrated in song and ballad.

The bushrangers of the 1850s and 1860s usually did not have convict backgrounds and were born in Australia. They often worked in gangs and held up banks and gold escorts. Many met their deaths at a very young age. Ben Hall, Frank Gardiner and Captain Moonlite are three of the most famous bushrangers of this period.

As bushranging became more violent, the police better organised, and newspapers condemned the 'evil' of these Australian outlaws, bushranging began to die out. The sympathy of the people lessened. The last of the romanticised bushranging figures met his death in 1880. Ned Kelly is arguably the best-known historical character in Australia despite having been a horse thief and murderer.

RESOURCE SHEET 2A

Comprehension

Australia's Outlaws: The Bushrangers

Answer True or False to the following statements.

1. Bushrangers did not exist until 1806.
2. The life of the bolters was tough.
3. Most bolters did not live very long in the bush.
4. Miners helped bushrangers because they thought they were romantic figures.
5. Diggers supported the police in the licence checking.
6. The bushrangers in the 1850s and 60s were the same as bushrangers in the 1800s.
7. One of the reasons Bushranging died out was because it lost popular support.
8. Ned Kelly is one of Australia's most famous folk heroes.

Answers:

1.	F	5.	F
2.	T	6.	F
3.	T	7.	T
4.	F	8.	T

RESOURCE SHEET 3

Reading

Read the following article by Garry Disher, in which he discusses those characteristics of Ned Kelly which are popularly respected by Australians — qualities familiar in many of our heroes.

Compare these qualities to those of your chosen character. Does your Australian hero share any of the qualities?

The true Australian?

Ned Kelly is the obvious example of how a bushranger has become a heroic, mythical figure. He has been called 'Australia's Son'. He incorporates some of the characteristics that Australians seem to respect, or perhaps used to respect.

First, Ned was from the bush. Most Australians live in coastal cities, yet for most of Australia's history the bush and bush people have had most attention in our folklore, books, films and art. However, it wouldn't have seemed quite right if Ned had been a rich squatter, or the son of a rich squatter.

Second, Ned was young. Australians like their heroes, whether footballers, bushrangers or pop singers, to be young.

Third, Ned was male. As yet, Australians have overlooked women to hold in awe as mythical figures.

Fourth, Ned was physically brave and skilful at physical activity. Australians would prefer their heroes to kick a goal, win a Grand Prix race, or find a fortune in minerals, than to write, raise children, paint or philosophize.

Fifth, Ned defied authority. Australians like their heroes to be rebellious, to question orders, and to do things their own way.

Sixth, Ned was a 'good' boy. He committed crimes, but people like to think he was forced into it. Australians despise anyone sneaky, anyone who is not being straight with them, and they can admire criminals who act from 'good' motives.

Seventh, Ned was an individual, but he didn't betray the gang or the people who gave support. Australians like their heroes to be independent, their own men; yet those who get 'too big for their boots' should beware. They'll soon be cut down to size. And mateship is important. The true Australian doesn't forget his loyalties or responsibilities to his mates — or his family.

Eighth, Ned died game. He shrugged and said 'Such is life' on the gallows. People prefer their heroes to be stoical in the face of defeat or death.

Ninth, Ned was a failure, in the long run. He didn't live a long life as a heroic outlaw figure. Instead, after a couple of years he was caught and punished. Australians are wary of success stories. They prefer their heroes to do well for a while, then fail or drop out of sight, because that shows that heroes are human.

These nine elements of how Australians are supposed to think of themselves and their heroes are open to question. Australia and Australians are changing, and so is our picture of ourselves. Since the nineteenth century, there have been great changes here in terms of industrial and urban growth, increased prosperity, better educational standards, and racial and social diversity. Australians are much less insular now that they are mainly urban based, and that they live among people from a variety of backgrounds.

It should be remembered, however, that legends and myths sometimes serve to simplify or hide serious social ills. Unemployment, poverty, and broad social divisions were very real in nineteenth-century Australia, and their existence in today's society should not be ignored.

Also, while these nine characteristics might fit the picture Australians have of themselves, they might also apply to Americans, Greeks, and Vietnamese.

Wretches & Rebels, The Australian Bushranger,
Gary Disher (1981), Oxford University Press

Language Activity : Key characteristics

List the key characteristics Ned Kelly possessed that Australians seem to respect.
Use the time connectives to help you.

RESOURCE SHEET 3 (continued)

Language Activity: Understanding what you read

A. Read *The true Australian?* article carefully.

B. On the basis of your understanding of this article say whether you think the following statements are True or False. (Do you think the author would agree with them or not?)

Read each statement very, very carefully!

1 Some of the characteristics Australians admire may have changed since Ned Kelly's time.

2. Australians prefer their heroes to be from the bush and from humble origins.

3. Australians in general admire Ned Kelly.

4. Australian heroes need to be older and more mature.

5. Women are well represented as Australian mythical figures.

6. Philosophers and painters are popular Australian heroes.

7. Australians like their heroes to be conformists.

8. Australian heroes are loyal to their mates and families.

9. Ned Kelly died of old age while playing a game.

10. Ned Kelly's actions in the face of death suggest he was not too worried about dying.

11. Australians like their heroes to have long, heroic and successful lives.

12. "Temporary" heroes, who soon fail and drop out of sight are more popular because they seem more human.

13. It is difficult to be accurate in describing what Australians think of as heroic qualities.

14. Australian society has changed since Ned Kelly's day and so too has the way Australians view themselves.

15. Serious social ills continue to exist in today's society but we should ignore them.

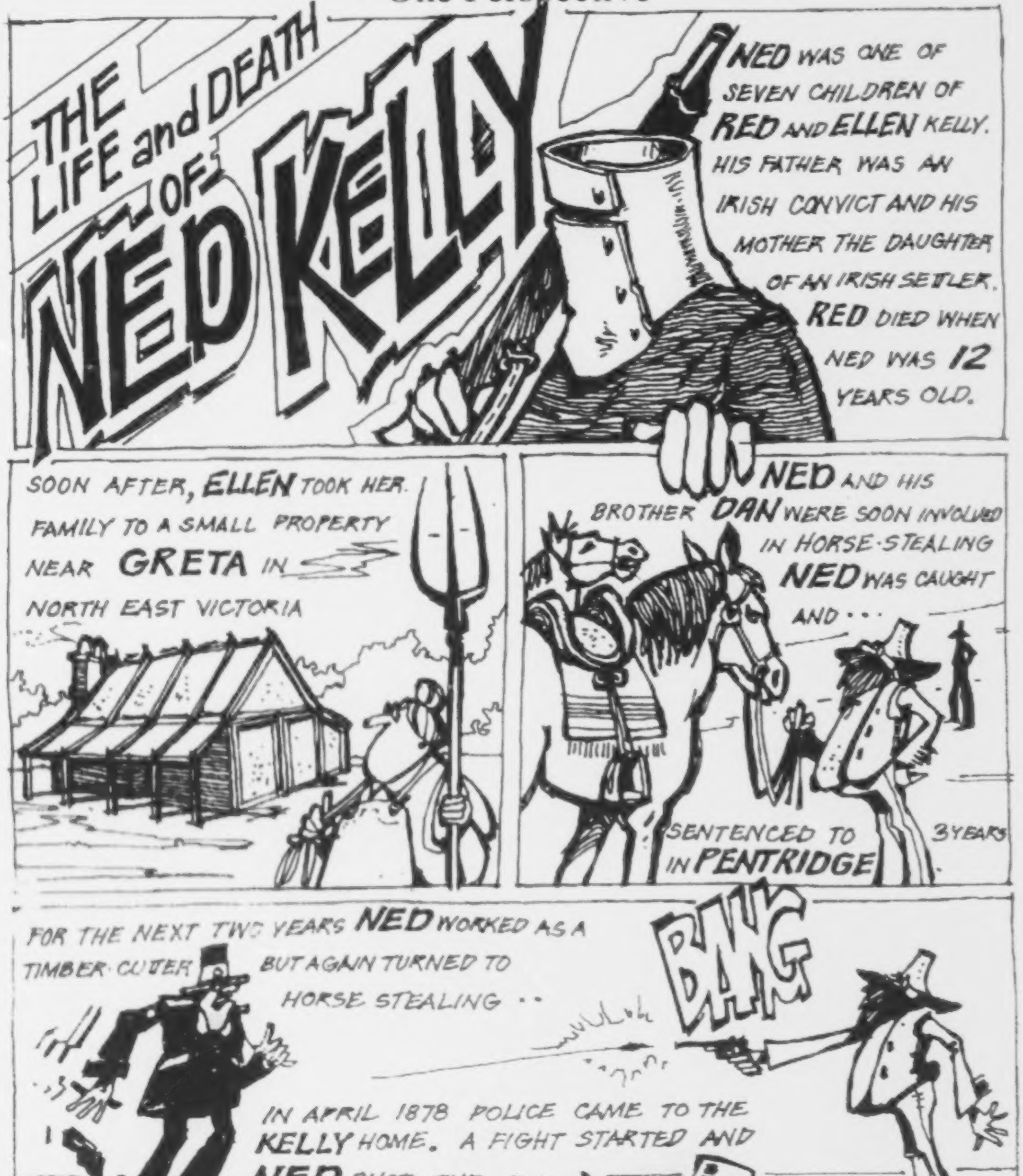
16. The way Australians see themselves is unique — no other nationality shares their qualities.

RESOURCE SHEET 4

Reading

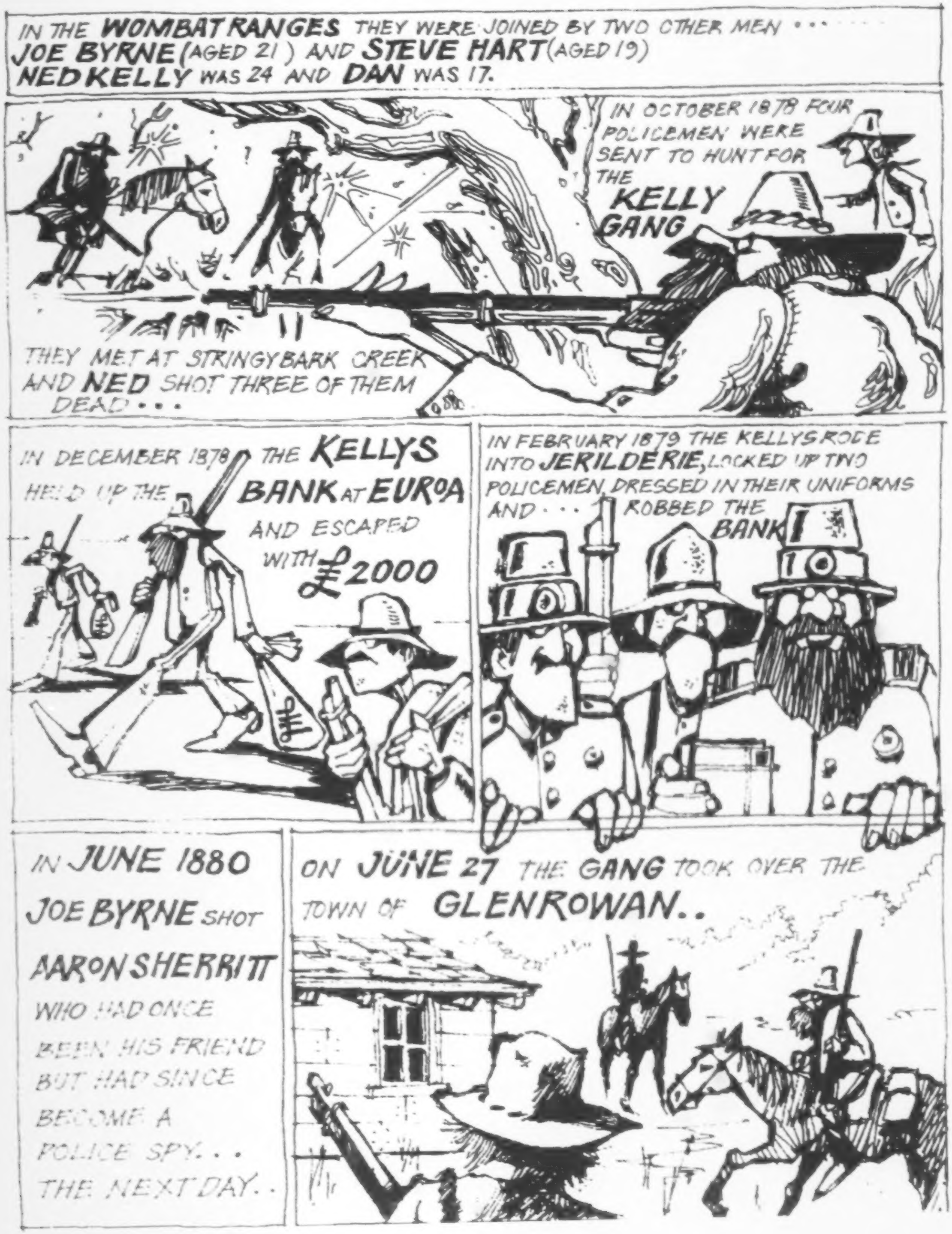
LIFE STORY: NED KELLY

- One Perspective -


THE LIFE and DEATH OF NED KELLY
NED WAS ONE OF SEVEN CHILDREN OF RED AND ELLEN KELLY. HIS FATHER WAS AN IRISH CONVICT AND HIS MOTHER THE DAUGHTER OF AN IRISH SETTLER. RED DIED WHEN NED WAS 12 YEARS OLD.
SOON AFTER, ELLEN TOOK HER FAMILY TO A SMALL PROPERTY NEAR GRETA IN NORTH EAST VICTORIA
NED AND HIS BROTHER DAN WERE SOON INVOLVED IN HORSE-STEALING NED WAS CAUGHT AND ...
SENTENCED TO 3 YEARS IN PENTRIDGE.
FOR THE NEXT TWO YEARS NED WORKED AS A TIMBER-CUTTER BUT AGAIN TURNED TO HORSE STEALING ..
BANG
IN APRIL 1878 POLICE CAME TO THE KELLY HOME. A FIGHT STARTED AND NED SHOT THE TROOPER IN THE WRIST
NED AND DAN FLED..

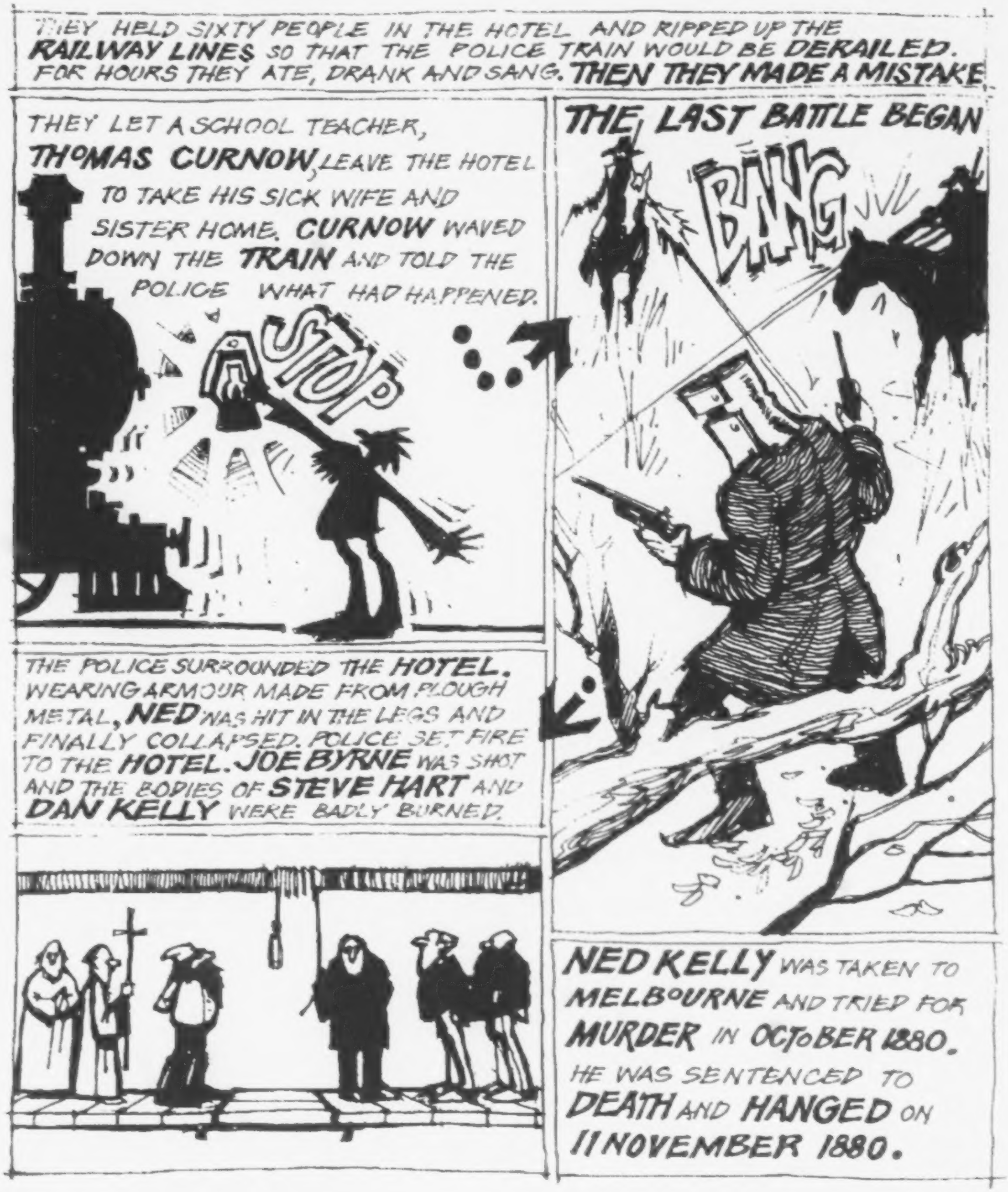
RESOURCE SHEET 4 (continued)

Reading


IN THE WOMBAT RANGES THEY WERE JOINED BY TWO OTHER MEN ..... JOE BYRNE (AGED 21) AND STEVE HART (AGED 19) NED KELLY WAS 24 AND DAN WAS 17.
IN OCTOBER 1878 FOUR POLICEMEN WERE SENT TO HUNT FOR THE KELLY GANG
THEY MET AT STRINGYBARK CREEK AND NED SHOT THREE OF THEM DEAD ...
IN DECEMBER 1878 THE KELLYS HELD UP THE BANK AT EUROA AND ESCAPED WITH £2000
IN FEBRUARY 1879 THE KELLYS RODE INTO JERILDERIE, LOCKED UP TWO POLICEMEN, DRESSED IN THEIR UNIFORMS AND ... ROBBED THE BANK
IN JUNE 1880 JOE BYRNE SHOT AARON SHERRITT WHO HAD ONCE BEEN HIS FRIEND BUT HAD SINCE BECOME A POLICE SPY ... THE NEXT DAY ..
ON JUNE 27 THE GANG TOOK OVER THE TOWN OF GLENROWAN ..

RESOURCE SHEET 4 (continued)

Reading


THEY HELD SIXTY PEOPLE IN THE HOTEL AND RIPPED UP THE RAILWAY LINES SO THAT THE POLICE TRAIN WOULD BE DERAILED. FOR HOURS THEY ATE, DRANK AND SANG. THEN THEY MADE A MISTAKE
THEY LET A SCHOOL TEACHER, THOMAS CURNOW, LEAVE THE HOTEL TO TAKE HIS SICK WIFE AND SISTER HOME. CURNOW WAVED DOWN THE TRAIN AND TOLD THE POLICE WHAT HAD HAPPENED.
STOP
THE LAST BATTLE BEGAN
BANG
THE POLICE SURROUNDED THE HOTEL. WEARING ARMOUR MADE FROM PLOUGH METAL, NED WAS HIT IN THE LEGS AND FINALLY COLLAPSED. POLICE SET FIRE TO THE HOTEL. JOE BYRNE WAS SHOT AND THE BODIES OF STEVE HART AND DAN KELLY WERE BADLY BURNED.
NED KELLY WAS TAKEN TO MELBOURNE AND TRIED FOR MURDER IN OCTOBER 1880. HE WAS SENTENCED TO DEATH AND HANGED ON 11 NOVEMBER 1880.

Their Ghosts May be Heard,
S. Coupe & M. Andrews,
Longman Cheshire, 1987

RESOURCE SHEET 5

Reading

SPECIAL CHARACTER STUDY
NED KELLY 1854–1880

Early Life

Ned Kelly was born in June, 1854 at Beveridge in Victoria, the son of John Kelly — a convict transported from Ireland to Van Diemen's Land in 1842 for stealing. After completing his sentence, John or 'Red' as he was known, moved to the Port Phillip District where he married Ellen Quinn. Ned Kelly attended school at Avenel, but after his father's death in 1866 the family moved to a hut at Eleven Mile Creek, between Greta and Glenrowan in northern Victoria, where his mother's family owned land. The Quinn family was well known by the police and were suspected of horse and cattle stealing.

Ned and the 'Kelly Gang'

Ned Kelly was arrested on suspicion of assault in 1869, but his charge was dismissed. In the following year he was convicted of summary offences and imprisoned for six months. Soon after his discharge he was convicted of receiving a stolen mare and imprisoned for a further three years.

In April 1878 a police trooper named Fitzpatrick, a man of doubtful character, attempt to arrest Dan at the Kelly home for allegedly stealing a horse. In the scuffle that followed Fitzpatrick was wounded, probably accidentally by himself with his own gun. Dan went into hiding and Mrs Kelly, her son-inlaw and a neighbour were arrested for aiding and abetting the supposed attempted murder of Constable Fitzpatrick. Ellen Kelly was sentenced to three years and the men to six years. Rewards were posted for the apprehension of Ned and Dan Kelly — although it was apparent that Ned had been absent at the time of the Fitzpatrick skirmish.

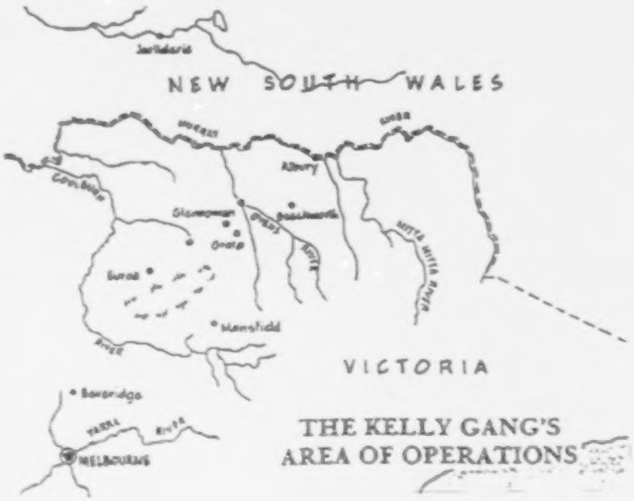
Ned and Dan Kelly were joined by Joe Byrne and Steve Hart, two family friends. A party of four police — Sergeant Kennedy and Constables Lonigan, Scalon and McIntyre — set out to capture Ned and Dan, who were camping overnight near Stringybark Creek. On 26 October 1878, when Kennedy and Scanlon went out on patrol, Ned, who had discovered their camp, surprised the remaining two. Longigan began to draw his pistol, but Ned shot him dead and then captured McIntyre. When Kennedy and Scanlon returned they were challenged to surrender. They fought, and in the exchange of fire Ned killed Scanlon and mortally wounded Kennedy, whom he then shot through the heart as 'an act of mercy'. McIntyre escaped during the battle and reported the killings to the police at Mansfield.

On 15 November 1878, rewards of £500 were posted for each member of the Kelly gang, however they continued their careers in crime with a series of robberies. On 9 December they took possession of a sheep station at Faithfull's Creek and after locking up the 22 occupants and leaving Joe Byrne to guard them, the others robbed the National Bank at Euroa. Next, on Saturday 8 February 1879, they raided Jerilderie in south-western New South Wales and locked up the two policemen, after taking over the police station. On the Monday, dressed as police, they held up the Bank of New South Wales and then, after rounding up 60 customers, occupied the Royal Hotel next door.

935

RESOURCE SHEET 5 (continued)

Reading



THE KELLY GANG'S AREA OF OPERATIONS

When Aaron Sherritt, a friend of Joe Byrne, became a police agent to try to track them down, Byrne shot him dead while four constables assigned to protect Sherritt hid in the house. This occurred on Saturday, June 27. In the early hours of the following Monday, Joe Byrne and Dan Kelly joined Ned and Steve Hart in a raid on a hotel in Glenrowan owned by Mrs Ann Jones. They detained 60 customers there. Fearing that a special train with police reinforcements would be sent from Melbourne, the gang forced railway workers to pull up some of the tracks. However, a school teacher and his family whom Ned had allowed to leave the hotel, stopped the train before it was derailed. By this time the gang had drunk a considerable quantity of liquor and, lacking sleep, were in no state to make rational judgements.

The Siege

The police, under Superintendent Hare, surrounded the hotel and began to shoot. Hare was shot in the arm and Ned was wounded in the foot, hand and arm. Dan, Byrne and Hart took refuge in the hotel while Ned took to the bush. Byrne was shot in the thigh and bled to death. About five o'clock in the morning, still clad in his heavy armour and helmet, Ned returned to the siege, but he was quickly brought down by bullet wounds to the legs and captured. Most of the hostages had managed to escape from the hotel by mid-morning, although two had been killed by police fire.

Finally, late in the afternoon, the hotel was set on fire. When Father Matthew Gibney went into the burning building to administer the last rites, calling as he entered, 'I am a Catholic priest: do not shoot me!' He found Dan Kelly and Joe Hart burnt beyond recognition. Only Byrne's body was brought out.

The End

In October 1880 Ned Kelly was tried in Melbourne for the murder of Constable Lonigan at Stringybark Creek. He was found guilty and sentenced to death. Despite strong agitation for a reprieve, Kelly was hanged on 11 November 1880 at Melbourne gaol. As the white cap was placed over his head by the hangman he is reported to have muttered the words: 'Such is Life'.

Australia: Our Story Book 2 the years 1838–88
K & L Solomon & K & J Livingston (1987)
Martin Education

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RESOURCE SHEET 6

Model argument

Bushrangers were only thieves and murderers. Do you agree?

Bushrangers of the nineteenth century did commit crimes of robbery and murder but they were not 'only thieves and murderers.' Many Australians of the 19th century believed these men to be modern-day Robin Hoods and victims of a harsh and corrupt police system.

The first Australian bushrangers were called 'bolters' — convicts who escaped into the bush. Some of these men had committed small crimes, such as petty theft, and received the terrible punishment of transportation to NSW or Van Diemen's land. In the colonies they worked in iron gangs or on government farms, where flogging was the most popular punishment. The Australian public sympathised with these escaped convicts because they believed them to be victims of a cruel penal system. Ballads from this period sing of the courage of these bolters.

In the 1850s and 1860s, bushrangers were generally viewed by the public as men unjustly persecuted by cruel and corrupt police. These police were often Englishmen, and the bushrangers were of Irish decent. The traditional enmity between these two ethnic groups served to feed this attitude. Bushrangers like Ben Hall, Frank Gardiner and Ned Kelly were admired and 'excused' of their crimes by many Australians.

Punishment in the 19th Century was very severe and the poorer classes had no access to lawyers to defend them against police charges. The bad image of the police in the colonies was justified and some real incidents of excessive violence and cruelty, and false arrest occurred.

Therefore, despite the fact they had committed crimes, bushrangers of the 19th century were victims of a 'corrupt' police force and unsympathetic government. Their place in history as folk heroes and symbols of Australian independence is certainly justified.

RESOURCE SHEET 7

Stages

Bushrangers were only thieves and murderers. Do you agree?

Thesis	Bushrangers of the nineteenth century did commit crimes of robbery and murder but they were not 'only thieves and murderers.' Many Australians of the 19th century believed these men to be modern-day Robin Hoods and victims of a harsh and corrupt police system.
Argument	The first Australian bushrangers were called 'bolters' — convicts who escaped into the bush. Some of these men had committed small crimes, such as petty theft, and received the terrible punishment of transportation to NSW or Van Diemen's land. In the colonies they worked in iron gangs or on government farms, where flogging was the most popular punishment. The Australian public sympathised with these escaped convicts because they believed them to be victims of a cruel penal system. Ballads from this period sing of the courage of these bolters.
Argument	In the 1850s and 1860s, bushrangers were generally viewed by the public as men unjustly persecuted by cruel and corrupt police. These police were often Englishmen, and the bushrangers were of Irish decent. The traditional enmity between these two ethnic groups served to feed this attitude. Bushrangers like Ben Hall, Frank Gardiner and Ned Kelly were admired and 'excused' of their crimes by many Australians.
Argument	Punishment in the 19th Century was very severe and the poorer classes had no access to lawyers to defend them against police charges. The bad image of the police in the colonies was justified and some real incidents of excessive violence and cruelty, and false arrest occurred.
Conclusion	Therefore, despite the fact they had committed crimes, bushrangers of the 19th century were victims of a 'corrupt' police force and unsympathetic government. Their place in history as folk heroes and symbols of Australian independence is certainly justified.

RESOURCE SHEET 8

The following words in the passage show a particular bias. Put them in appropriate column as shown below.

Positive Words	Negative Words
Robin Hood	thieves murderers

Paragraph 1	thieves murderers Robin Hood victims
Paragraph 2	petty theft terrible punishment flogging punishment sympathised cruel penal system courage
Paragraph 3	unjustly persecuted cruel and corrupt police feed this attitude traditional enmity admired
Paragraph 4	severe bad image excessive violence and cruelty
Paragraph 5	legal activities corrupt folk heroes thieves and murderers

What does this exercise tell us about the viewpoint of the writer?

RESOURCE SHEET 9

Teacher-led construction Version 1

	'Ned Kelly has those qualities which are typical of our national character.' Do you agree?
Thesis	I think our great Australian hero is Ned Kelly. He is a very famous 19th Century character. He has been called "Australia's Son" because he has things about him that Australians think everyone has.
Argument	Ned Kelly was brave and sporty which we value today and our survey showed we like to think we're sport loving and our heroes of today are sports men and women.
Argument	By going against the police Ned showed he was a rebel and we like to think of ourselves as being like this.
Argument	We also like to be independent but not snobs or anything like that. Ned was independent with working class parents so he wasn't a snob. He was loyal to family and friends which is important to us.
Conclusion	Ned Kelly is a favourite Australian hero because he has many qualities we believe are typical of our national character. He was brave, sporty, against police, independent and loyal. We still identify with the story of Ned Kelly because of these qualities.

RESOURCE SHEET 10

Teacher-led construction Version 2

'Ned Kelly has those qualities which are typical of our national character'. Do you agree?

Ned Kelly is an Australian hero. He is perhaps the most famous character of the 19th Century and has been called 'Australia's Son' because he has qualities which Australians believe are typical of our national character.

Ned Kelly was brave and good at outdoor activities. These two qualities are valued by Australians today, and were registered strongly in our survey. Australians like to believe that they are sport-loving, and many modern heroes are sports men and women.

In defying authority, Ned showed rebelliousness. Modern Australians prefer to think of the typical Australian as going against orders and authority.

Australians also think of themselves as independent, but not arrogant or snobbish. Ned Kelly was definitely independent. His working class origins also meant he was not snobbish. He was extremely loyal to his family and friends, and this is another valued quality of our national character.

Ned Kelly remains a favourite Australian hero because he has many of those qualities which Australians believe are typical of our national character. He was brave, physically gifted, anti-authoritarian, independent and loyal. Modern Australians still identify with the story of Ned Kelly because of these qualities which we believe he possessed.

COMMERCE

ACCESSING LEARNING

classroom sample unit

COMMERCE

LANGUAGE AND LITERACY DEVELOPMENT IN KEY LEARNING AREAS

942

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UNIT OVERVIEW

This unit of work for Year 10 addresses the topic by developing the following concepts: communication, income, organisation, and responsibility.

TOPIC	**Area**: Labour	
PART ONE **Page 7**	*Describing*	Develops concepts of work and definitions relating to the world of work. Students conduct a survey on work experience and write a report.
PART TWO **Page 25**	*Recounting*	Readings on a number of successful people leading to a biography or recount.
PART THREE **Page 51**	*Instructing*	Students examine job advertisements and construct a protocol of important points to remember when attending an interview.
PART FOUR **Page 65**	*Explaining*	The rights and responsibilities of employers and employees are presented. An account of the growth of trade union movement is provided.
PART FIVE **Page 89**	*Challenging*	Students explore issues of technological change in relation to unemployment.

UNIT OUTCOMES

KNOWLEDGE AND UNDERSTANDING

By the completion of this unit students should be able to:

- identify the nature and purpose of work through personal experiences, surveys, job advertisements
- practise job application procedures and resume/curriculum vitae writing, job interview techniques
- describe the character and composition of the Australian workforce through biographical information on local identities Dick Smith, John Fahey, Clover Moore
- explain the rights and responsibilities of employees in work contracts
- explain the origin and development of trade unions
- explain changes taking place in the Australian labour market due to technological change.

VALUES AND ATTITUDES

By the completion of this unit students should be able to:

- discern the rights and responsibilities of individuals, groups and institutions in relation to commercial practices
- value these rights and responsibilities
- engage in current commercial practices with confidence.

UNIT OUTCOMES

SKILLS

By the completion of this unit students should be able to:

- gather and organise data for a survey
- recognise and recall facts, ideas and relationships in regard to unions and technology and determine the accuracy of the information
- judge and choose among alternative courses of action in job applications and interviews
- evaluate the feasibility/consequences of alternative courses of action in job applications and interviews.

LANGUAGE

By the completion of this unit students should be able to:

- recognise and use appropriate text stages and language choices to construct a survey, write a curriculum vitae, write a procedure, account, argument, and a discussion essay
- recognise and practise the use of the following language resources:
  - definitions for technical terms
  - thematisation to move students from personal to impersonal writing
  - lexical chains and connectives to make writing cohesive and demonstrate logical relationships
  - nominal groups and numeralisations for abstraction and technicality
  - given/new structure in building clear explanations
  - emotive language and modality in constructing an argument.

COMMERCE

Strand: Resources

Level

6.10: Explains relationships between specialisation of production, exchange and resource use

Level

7.11: Analyses factors that influence productivity and conditions of work.

Level

8.11: Analyses trends to predict likely future workplace changes and ways in which individuals and groups can respond to and influence them.

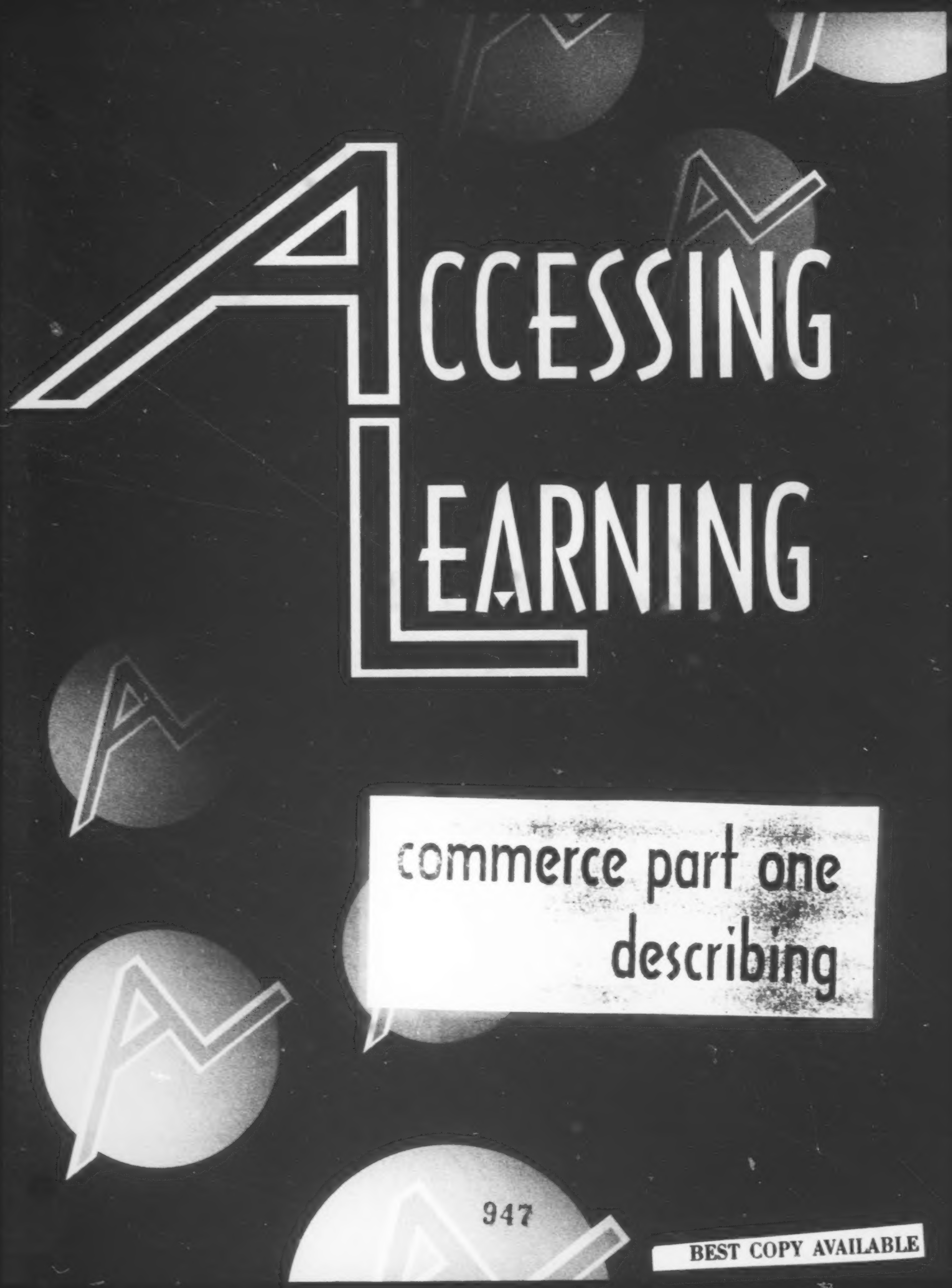
Strand: Investigation, Communication and Participation

Level: Investigation, Communication and Participation

6.17: Discusses the logic of and evidence for an argument or viewpoint.

6.18: Comes to an informed decision through discussing and considering viewpoints and evidence presented by others.

7.16: Uses the methodologies of the learning area to investigate different perspectives on an issue.



ACCESSING LEARNING

commerce part one
describing

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PART ONE OVERVIEW - DESCRIBING

Develops concepts of work and definitions relating to the world of work. Students conduct a survey of work experience and write a report.

	Content and Tasks	Assessment
Preparing the Context	The concept of work	Informal assessment of the students' understanding
Embedded Cycle 1* *Definitions	*Teacher develops definitions of work, income and other job-related terms.*	*Formal assessment of the students' ability to write a successful definition and knowledge of a range of definitions*
Embedded Cycle 2* *Surveys	*Analysis of survey features and development and trialling surveys, including survey of students' work experience*	*Student self-assessment of survey success on the basis of usefulness of the information generated*
Developing the Context	Reading: *Earning an Income*, and language activity on subject-related vocabulary	Peer assessment of completed definitions
Modelling	Analysis of model report *Risks Involved in Earning an Income*	Informal assessment of students' understanding of concept of stages and recognition of genre-appropriate language
Teacher-led Construction	Joint report on student Work Survey results	Informal assessment of students' ability to use appropriate text stages and language choices
Student-led Construction	Individual reports on survey result	Formal assessment of students' ability to apply knowledge of subject content and report writing.
Resource Sheets	Activity sheets and resource sheets are grouped as Resource Sheets at the end of each Part. They are referred to by number in the text.	

PART ONE - DESCRIBING

PREPARING THE CONTEXT

The teacher establishes the concepts of the world of work through questioning.

- What is work?
- What does work mean to you? (employee, housewife, landlord).
- Why do people work?

DEVELOPING THE CONTEXT

The teacher establishes the need for accurate definitions by moving into an embedded cycle.

EMBEDDED CYCLE 1 — DEFINITIONS

Preparing the Context

The teacher talks about definitions. Readings are needed to build field knowledge and identify key words to be defined.

Modelling

Teacher establishes stages of definitions. (Examples are an optional stage.)

Name ^ Class ^ Characteristics ^ (Examples)

Name	Class	Characteristics
Work is	any effort	directed toward making or doing something

Teacher-led Construction

Teacher and students work on other job-related definitions students will need:

Personnel officer, resume, curriculum vitae, references, referees, portfolio, prior experience, specialisation (skill), apprenticeship, cadetship, casual, full-time, part-time, TAFE, university, business college, training, suitability.

Name	Class	Characteristics	Example
Income	is a financial reward	received in return for service performed in employment	for example, solicitor's fees

Student-led Construction

Job definitions

Students construct their own definitions of the following:

Wages, salary, interest, profit, rent, land, labour, and capital enterprise.

Students then use these definitions in a sentence building activity.

You earn an income from:

- land in the form of rent;
- labour in the form of wages/salary;
- capital in the form of interest;
- enterprise in the form of profit.

EMBEDDED CYCLE 2 — SURVEYS

Preparing the Context

Focus questions

What surveys have you seen or participated in?

Possible answers: phone surveys, shopping centre surveys, door-to-door surveys, census, surveys in other subject areas, television and radio ratings (television Logies, pop music rating).

What is a survey? What does it look like?

Possible answers: A series of questions or statements which require a true/false answer or sentence; multiple choice; graded responses 1–5.

Why do people do surveys?

Possible answers: To find certain kinds of information (product use, magazines purchased, television programmes watched) to be used for different purposes such as to identify target audiences on where changes need to be made.

Developing the Context

The teacher establishes the need for a survey determining interest and abilities.

Hand out a range of surveys with different formats, eg television viewing patterns, product use surveys, and ask students to determine the following:

1. What is the purpose of the survey? (title and information)?
2. Who is the target group?
3. What information is the person trying the find out?
4. How do you find out this information? (personal questions and instructions)
5. What did y[illegible] notice about the format of the surveys?

Modelling

The teacher displays an OHT of Resource Sheet 1, *Interests and Abilities*, and identifies and marks out the stages with the students (Resource Sheet 2).

Teacher-led Construction

Student Survey

Teacher displays the survey containing answer categories on Resource Sheet 3 as an OHT. Students/teacher jointly construct appropriate questions to match the answers (Resource Sheet 4).

Students complete the exercise on percentages and graphs and then keep the Work Survey for the report writing stage of the main cycle. The teacher demonstrates the methodology of percentages and graphs in class, choosing one category from the survey as a model.

Student-led Construction

The students devise and administer their own survey.

Instructions

1. The students are to survey four adults regarding their current job using same questions as the Work Survey.
2. They are to collect results in tally form and transfer to percentage form. These percentages will then be illustrated in graphs. Teachers need to assess whether students need support to develop these skills.
3. The students could undertake a discussion on adapting the survey to suit adult experience.

The teacher now returns to the main cycle and continues developing the context.

DEVELOPING THE CONTEXT

Reading and language activities

Have the students read *Earning an Income* (Resource Sheet 5) which deals with subject-related vocabulary, then undertake the matching and language activities in Resource Sheet 6.

In Commerce, to draw examples we often refer to general classes of people, events or things rather than individual people, events or things. For example, in *Earning and Income*, *Australians* and *people* refer to generalised groups of people and not to particular individuals. *A man* or *a firm* does not refer to 'Bill' or the 'X company', but rather to any man or any firm.

Ask students to underline any more examples of generalised human participants they can find in the passage and explain that in this kind of report writing it is often more appropriate to refer to generalised rather than individual classes of people or things. In their own writing, students need to make conscious decisions about whether to use generalised or individual participants.

MODELLING

In labelling the stages, we have chosen to use the generic labels in conjunction with a particular label that matches the purpose of the stage seen in the classroom context. This approach is designed to assist students to become familiar with the terminology of the stages and to be able to apply their own terminology based on an understanding of the **purpose** of the stage.

Display the model report, Resource Sheet 7, and with the students establish the stages (Resource Sheet 8).

Then have the students undertake the language activity.

Language activity

Cut up the model and ask the students to reassemble it. By reassembling the report, the students will show an understanding of its structure. The students will also draw on knowledge of lexical cohesion, reference and connectives in order to justify the sequence they chose.

Reports attempt to be neutral in the words they use, but on occasion emotive phrases like *will probably fail* are used to stress the point. This impersonal tone, which characterises report writing, needs to be highlighted for students.

Using the results from the earlier Work Survey, students are now ready to write a report on their work experience.

TEACHER-LED CONSTRUCTION

The teacher and students jointly construct a report on the results from their Work Survey. As in the model, the two issues of staging and choice of appropriate language need to be considered.

In order to focus clearly on each, it is suggested that:

1. students are reminded of the relevant subject knowledge;
2. the generic stages of the model are used to help students contribute to the writing of Version 1 with appropriate stages;
3. the teacher reminds students of the language features examined in the model;
4. students and teacher rewrite Version 1 to produce a more appropriately worded Version 2.

Version 1 becomes	**Version 2**
Correct staging	Correct staging and appropriate language
Our class was asked to do a survey on jobs we had	A survey was administered to members of the Year 10 class
We wanted to find out...	The purpose of the survey was to find out...
Most of us got our jobs by knowing someone or asking around	Word-of-mouth and the personal approach were the main ways students obtained their jobs
Not everyone had to join a union, but if you worked for Woolies, Franklins etc you had to	The students who worked in department stores or large food chains were required to be...

Examples of Versions 1 and 2 are provided in Resource Sheets 9 and 10.

STUDENT-LED CONSTRUCTION

The students write individual reports based on the results of their survey of four adults from the student-led construction in *Embedded Cycle 2 — Surveys.*

RESOURCE SHEET 1

Abilities Survey

Aim of Survey

1. Rank my own abilities.
2. Compare my understanding of myself with that of others.

Rate your skill in the abilities below. Ask someone else to complete this survey about you. (It should be someone who knows you well). Compare your answers with theirs and discuss the differences.

Ability	Excellent	Good	Fair
1. Acting responsibly			
2. Arguing a viewpoint			
3. Being sympathetic to others			
4. Concentrating for a long time			
5. Creative thinking			
6. Cooking			
7. Following rules			
8. Learning languages			
9. Working closely with others			
10. Organising other people			
11. Persuading people			
12. Coping with stress			
13. Memorising lists			
14. Settling arguments			
15. Thinking quickly			
16. Other abilities			

RESOURCE SHEET 2: Stages

Title

Abilities Survey

Purpose

Aim of Survey

1. Rank my own abilities.
2. Compare my understanding of myself with that of others.

Instructions

Rate your skill in the abilities below. Ask someone else to complete this survey about you. (It should be someone who knows you well). Compare your answers with theirs and discuss the differences.

Ranking

Ability	Excellent	Good	Fair
1. Acting responsibly			
2. Arguing a viewpoint			
3. Being sympathetic to others			
4. Concentrating for a long time			
5. Creative thinking			
6. Cooking			
7. Following rules			
8. Learning languages			
9. Working closely with others			
10. Organising other people			
11. Persuading people			
12. Coping with stress			
13. Memorising lists			
14. Settling arguments			
15. Thinking quickly			
16. Other abilities			

RESOURCE SHEET 3 Teacher-led construction: survey

Work Survey

Title Work survey

Purpose **This survey aims to find out your employment history.**

Instructions

- From the categories column, determine questions which match for the Questions column.
- Everyone in the class complete the survey together and fill in the tally column.
- The class teacher will demonstrate how to do the first percentage.
- For each question, calculate the responses in each category as a percentage of the total number of responses.

Questions

Questions	Categories	Tally	%
	full-time part-time casual		
	word-of-mouth newspaper local notice board personal approach other		
	hour day week fortnight job		
	every day every week every fortnight		
	cash cheque direct bank deposit		
	union membership – compulsory – by choice		
	employment – terminated – resigned		

RESOURCE SHEET 4

Work Survey

This survey aims to find out your employment history. Think of a job you have had.

- From the categories column, determine questions which match for the Questions column.
- Everyone in the class complete the survey together, and fill in the tally column.
- The class teacher will demonstrate how to do the first percentage.
- For each question, calculate the responses in each category as a percentage of the total number of responses.

Questions	Categories	Tally	%
1. Was your job ...	Full-time Part-time Casual		
2. How did you get the job?	Word-of-mouth Newspaper local notice board personal approach other		
3. How is/was your pay calculated?	hour day week fortnight job		
4. How often are/were you paid?	every day every week every fortnight		
5. In what form are/were you paid?	cash cheque direct bank deposit		
6. If you joined a union, what was the condition of membership?	union membership – compulsory – by choice		
7. If you left this job, how did you leave?	employment – terminated – resigned		

Earning Income

What is income?

Income is the financial reward people receive in return for services. For example, a solicitor may earn more than $100 per hour. Income can be earned in various ways.

Ways of earning an income

Wages and Salaries

Most Australians earn their income by providing labour for a firm and are paid receiving wages. A wage is the money paid to an employee for a particular period of work. Usually an employee's wage is calculated on an hourly basis and is paid weekly or fortnightly.
For example, a man who works at a check-out earns $11.52 per hour, works a 38 hour week and is paid every two weeks. His fortnightly income is therefore:

$11.52 x 38 hours = $437.76 per week
$437.76 x 2 = $875.52 per fortnight.

People who provide their labour to a firm may alternatively be paid in the form of a salary. These people are employed and paid on a yearly basis. This means that their rate of pay is calculated annually, rather than on an hourly rate.

For example, an executive in a large corporation could earn $60,000 per year. The hours of work per week vary, but the income is constant.

Other sources of income

A smaller group of Australians earn their income from sources other than their labour. These sources are land, capital and enterprise.

LAND. Some Australians earn their income from owning land. The type of income received from this land is called 'rent'. Rent is the money paid for the use of someone else's property, eg a unit or house. The owner of the property is called the landlord.

CAPITAL. Some Australians earn their income from money they save or invest. Financial institutions offer to pay the investor in return for savings. Income earned in this way is called interest and is usually calculated as a percentage of savings over a period of time. For example, a savings bank offers an investment rate of 3% per annum. From a $100 deposit you would receive $3 interest over one year.

ENTERPRISE. Some Australians work for themselves rather than other people. These people are called entrepreneurs — someone who organises and manages an enterprise or business. In return for higher skill and risk-taking, he/she receives an income called 'profit'. Profit can only be earned if more money is received than spent.

RESOURCE SHEET 6

Matching Activity: *Earning an income*

1. Read the handout carefully.
2. Match the words in the left-hand column with words in right-hand column. Then re-write in complete sentences in your workbook.

1. Wages	is financial reward received in return for services.
2. Land, capital and enterprise	are employed and paid on a yearly basis.
3. Profit occurs	are usually calculated on an hourly basis.
4. Even though a salary earner's hours of work vary	are people who work for themselves rather than other people.
5. Interest	of money paid for the use of someone else's property.
6. Providing labour for a firm.	are monies paid to an employee for a particular period of work.
7. A landlord	is income earned from money saved or invested.
8. Salary-earners	when more money is received than spent.
9. Entrepreneurs	is the main way most Australians earn their income.
10. There are various ways	involves an element of risk taking.
11. Income	his/her income remains constant.
12. Wages	are sources of income other than labour.
13. Being an entrepreneur	of earning income.
14. Rent is the name	is an owner of rented property.

RESOURCE SHEET 7

Model report

Risks Involved in Earning Income

Earning an income as an entrepreneur can bring large financial rewards but also carries high risks.

Establishing a business is not as easy as many believe. It requires a complex combination of skill, money, circumstance and luck. Statistics show that around 90% of businesses fail within the first 12 months of operation.

Success in business depends on many factors:

- the entrepreneur's ability
- degree of skill and prior experience in that particular type of business
- management expertise
- sufficient finance
- in-depth market knowledge.

Those who attempt to begin a business without these qualifications will probably fail. In the retail trade over 80% of business failures are incurred by those with little or no prior experience.

The wage or salary earner's income, although lower and more predictable, carries less risk. The employer, as the entrepreneur, carries the risk. Therefore, when contemplating starting a business, consideration should given to whether the wage or salary earner has sufficient skill, ability and experience to carry out the work.

RESOURCE SHEET 8

Stages

Title

Risks Involved in Earning Income

General Statement

Earning an income as an entrepreneur can bring large financial rewards but also carries high risks.

Descriptions

Establishing a business is not as easy as many believe. It requires a complex combination of skill, money, circumstance and luck. Statistics show that around 90% of businesses fail within the first 12 months of operation.

Success in business depends on many factors:

- the entrepreneur's ability
- degree of skill and prior experience in that particular type of business
- management expertise
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The wage or salary earner's income, although lower and more predictable, carries less risk. The employer, as the entrepreneur, carries the risk. Therefore, when contemplating starting a business, consideration should given to whether the wage or salary earner has sufficient skill, ability and experience to carry out the work.

RESOURCE SHEET 9 Teacher-led Construction Version 1

Title	**Our Work Experience**
General Statement	Our class was asked to do a survey on jobs we had. We wanted to find out about what jobs we had, how we got them, how we were paid, if we joined a union and how we left.
Description	We found 6% of the class were casuals and 10% were part-timers. Most of us got our jobs by knowing someone or asking around, everyone was paid hourly and those who worked in Woolies, K-Mart, Franklins etc were paid fortnightly and others like local shops were paid every week. Not everyone had to join a union, but if you worked for Woolies, Franklins etc you had to. 70% of the class who didn't work any more left because they wanted to, 30% were sacked.

RESOURCE SHEET 10 Teacher-led Construction Version 2

Class Experience in Earning an Income

A survey was administered to members of the Year 10 Commerce class. The purpose of the survey was to find out information regarding employment experience of class members. Questions in the survey related to the type of work, getting the job, payment for work, union membership and termination of employment.

Results were tallied and converted to percentages. The findings showed that 60% of the class worked on a casual basis, mostly at local department or food stores, and 10% of the class worked part-time.

Word-of-mouth and the personal approach were the main ways students obtained their jobs and all students had their wages calculated on an hourly basis. The students who worked in department stores or large food chains were paid fortnightly by cash and were required to be union members, while those who worked for small businesses, for example, the local cake shop, were paid every week, also by cash, and were not required to be union members. Of those students who had left employment, 70% resigned, whereas 30% had their employment terminated.

The results above show this class has a range of experience in earning an income.

ACCESSING LEARNING

commerce part two
recounting

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

PART TWO OVERVIEW - RECOUNTING

Readings on a number of successful people lead students to write a biography or recount.

	Content and Tasks	**Assessment**
Preparing the Context	Teacher explores the nature of employment.	Informal assessment
Developing the Context	Students examine language in recounts of the careers of Colonel Sanders, Clover Moore, and Don Burke, and practise note-taking.	Student self-assessment of ability to synthesise information and take notes, judged by usefulness of their notes in the teacher-led construction
Modelling	Deconstruction of a model biography of Linda Serra and cloze on temporal connectives and action verbs.	Informal assessment of students' ability to break text into stages and recognise the variety of language features used in a text, and understanding of content.
Teacher-led Construction	Teacher and students construct a biography of Clover Moore.	Informal assessment of students' ability to make use of appropriate text stages and language choices for the content
Student-led Construction	The students write a biography of how a prominent person obtained his/her job.	Formal assessment of students' ability to apply knowledge of subject content to a successful biography, based on criteria established during the cycle
OR		
Developing the context	The students write and conduct an interview with a member of their family on how s/he got his/her first job.	Students' self-assessment of their ability to construct an interview based on ability to use it for the student-led construction
Student-led Construction	The students write a recount of interview data.	Formal assessment of students' ability to apply knowledge of the subject content to a successful recount, based on criteria established during the cycle.
Resource Sheets	Activity sheets and resource sheets are grouped as Resource Sheets at the end of each Part. They are referred to by number in the text.	

PART TWO - RECOUNTING

PREPARING THE CONTEXT

The teacher leads a general discussion on employment through the following questions:

- What is an entrepreneur?
- Do you know anyone who has been very successful in the world of work?
- What factors do you think contribute to success in the world of work?

DEVELOPING THE CONTEXT

The teacher hands out Resource Sheets 1 - 5, readings on

- Colonel Sanders (Kentucky Fried Chicken)
- Clover Moore
- Don Burke
- John Fahey
- Bob Carr

optional

Video segments on success stories could be used as well, for example current affairs/late night show interviews.

Resource Sheet 1. In discussion of the focus questions the teacher points out to the students that the majority of the processes in the text are material, and they show Colonel Sanders' ambitious progress by words such as ***upgraded, promoted, sold***, and his enjoyment of what he did (***enjoyed, trying out***). This combination provides a picture of Colonel Sanders as an ambitious and successful businessman.

Resource Sheet 1A shows the process items in bold.

Resource Sheet 2 points out to the students that biographies are about someone and that person is the key participant. Clover Moore is the key participant of the reading and is referred to as — ***Clover Moore, she, Independent Alderman, Clover, a vigorous and prominent Councillor.***

Ask students to make notes which they can use to complete the teacher-led construction recount of Clover Moore's public life. Both texts are about the same topic but, as with much research work, students are required to combine information from sources in order to complete a written task.

Note: The teacher needs to check the students' note-making skills and may need to insert an embedded cycle focusing on the skills of note-making.

Resource Sheet 3 *Don Burke* provides a good opportunity to focus students on cohesive devices we use to link text. The following activity will allow the students to practise recognising these devices. Be open and explicit with the students about the relevance of this activity to the development of their skills.

Focus tasks

- Cut the passage into paragraphs for groups of students to read and assemble.
- Ask them to identify the words which determine the order. When students get stuck or make a mistake trying to reassemble the passage checking these words will usually help them get back on the right track.
- Students need to identify links in the paragraphs such as time words and lexical items; for example, *media* links with *television, radio, publications, book studies.*
- Time words can be underlined, lexical items which help sequence can be circled and linked.
- Discuss these cohesive links (underlined in Resource Sheet 3A) and stress the importance of using these language features to write coherent and well sequenced texts. Paragraph 2 and 3 are joined by repetition of the word *horticulture*. From paragraph 3 *media career* extends through to paragraph 13 with a range of media outlets mentioned, eg television, radio, print. Paragraphs 14–16 each deal with Don Burke's other personal interests.

Teachers should also point out that cohesion exists within as well as between paragraphs. Ask the students to look at paragraph 5 and list all the words that relate to the television show.

Television program

Burke's Backyard

the television success story

the program

Point out that these words provide cohesion in the text and add variety to the paragraph by referring to the program in a number of ways. This language feature is a useful one for students to use, as it adds interest and variety to their wording by avoiding monotonous repetition of the same words.

Students should be encouraged to edit their own work using the kind of analysis used here. In this way, they can check that they have built up logical sequences in the text.

Optional readings Resource Sheets 4, 4A and 5 are additional readings for teachers if they choose to use them as models or notes for teacher-led construction. Ensure that students have a purpose for reading the text, for example to make notes for a specific teacher-led construction or to answer a focus questions.

MODELLING

The teacher displays the model biography of Linda Serra on an OHT of Resource Sheet 6 and shows the stages (Resource Sheet 7). Students undertake a cloze on temporal connectives (Resource Sheet 8) and another on action verbs (Resource Sheet 9). Both cloze focus students on features which are characteristic of a biography.

TEACHER-LED CONSTRUCTION

The teacher jointly constructs with the students a recount of the public life of Clover Moore, using the same methodology as described in Part One of this unit.

Version 1 Correct staging	becomes **Version 2** Correct staging and appropriate language
Clover Moore got a BA and Dip Ed.	Clover Moore completed a Bachelor of Arts Degree and a Diploma of Education.
She went into politics.	She entered politics...
... there were few child-care centres, parks and other services for locals and the Council didn't seem to care about the local environment.	Heavy metals, nutrients and chemicals severely impair our environment by polluting our waterways.
She pushed the Independent Movement at local and state politics.	She has been a pioneer of the community-based Independent Movement into local and state politics.
A big achievement...	One of her significant achievements has been...
... Charter of Reforms which she did with two other MPs. This works for...	... the co-sponsorship of the Charter of Reforms which she promotes...

Resource Sheets 10 and 11 show a Version 1 with stages identified and Version 2 rewritten in appropriate style.

STUDENT-LED CONSTRUCTION

The students now have biographical data from a number of sources. As a teacher, consider the following options:

- choose a prominent person from the readings in developing the context and write a biography;
- interview a member of the family on how they got their first job and write a recount. If this option is chosen, students will need to move back to developing the context so that the teacher can help determine what questions would be appropriate when conducting an interview to gain information for a recount. This will form an embedded cycle, similar to the survey cycle seen in Part One.

Possible interview questions might be:

1. What was your first job?
2. How did you get it?
3. What did your job involve?
4. Did you work alone or as part of a team?
5. Did you enjoy your work? Why?
6. What were some of your achievements in that job?
7. Why did you leave that job?

RESOURCE SHEET 1

Focus task:

Underline the processes in this passage.

What type are they mostly?

How do the processes reflect the progress of the Colonel's successful career?

Kentucky Fried Chicken

By the age of 40 Colonel Harland Sanders had already had several jobs. He had started off at 15 working as a railway hand. Over a period of time he slowly upgraded his experience and was promoted to operating a steam-powered ferry on the Ohio river.

After many years work the Colonel had saved enough money to buy a service station and cafe in Corbin, a town in Kentucky. Colonel Sanders enjoyed cooking and while in the restaurant business he was able to combine this interest with his employment. He was an adventurous cook trying out new recipes with many spices to flavour chicken. As his chicken gained fame around Kentucky so his business grew. The diner in Corbin became a popular place for travellers.

In the 1950s a highway was built which took traffic away from the town of Corbin. At the age of 66 the Colonel decided to travel the USA with his special seasonings and secret cooking techniques to sell to operators across the country. He sold his concept for a five-cent royalty on every chicken sold using his secret recipe.

With careful financial planning and marketing he became a major food retailer over the next thirty years. Success was based on quality food served quickly to a uniform recipe. The Colonel sold the company but remained as goodwill ambassador for many years. In 1971 the company was acquired by Pepsi-Co enterprises.

In 1992 there were more than 6,214 Kentucky Fried Chicken stores in more than 56 countries. Across the world the company serves more than 500 million meals every year, using more than 180 million chickens.

RESOURCE SHEET 1A

bold items = processes

Kentucky Fried Chicken

By the age of 40 Colonel Harland Sanders **had** already **had** several jobs. He **had started off** at 15 working as a railway hand. Over a period of time he slowly **upgraded** his experience and **was promoted** to operating a steam-powered ferry on the Ohio river.

After many years work the Colonel **had saved** enough money to buy a service station and cafe in Gorbin, a town in Kentucky. Colonel Sanders **enjoyed** cooking and while in the restaurant business he **was able to combine** this interest with his employment. He **was** an adventurous cook **trying out** new recipes with many spices to flavour chicken. As his chicken **gained** fame around Kentucky so his business **grew**. The diner in Corbin **became** a popular place for travellers.

In the 1950s a highway **was built** which **took** traffic away from the town of Corbin. At the age of 66 the Colonel **decided** to travel the USA with his special seasonings and secret cooking techniques **to sell** to operators across the country. He **sold** his concept for a five-cent royalty on every chicken **sold** using his secret recipe.

With careful financial planning and marketing he **became** a major food retailer over the next thirty years. Success **was based** on quality food **served** quickly to a uniform recipe. The Colonel **sold** the company but **remained** as goodwill ambassador for many years. In 1971 the company **was acquired** by Pepsi-Co enterprises.

In 1992 there **were** more than 6,214 Kentucky Fried Chicken stores in more than 56 countries. Across the world the company **serves** more than 500 million meals every year, **using** more than 180 million chickens.

RESOURCE SHEET 2

Focus question:

Who is the main participant in this reading? List the ways she is referred to.

Clover Moore MP

Clover Moore gave seven years service to the people of Inner Sydney between 1980 and 1987. She entered local politics because of the appalling lack of local facilities and disregard for the urban environment. As an Independent Alderman, she pioneered the Independent movement in Sydney.

Clover was elected to South Sydney Council in 1980. She joined Sydney City Council in 1981 and for the next six years was one of its most vigorous and prominent Councillors particularly on the City Council's Development and Planning Committees.

Her performance was endorsed in the 1984 Council election, when she was returned with an increased majority of 21% — the biggest swing in the city.

After the City Council was dismissed for political reasons in 1987, she decided to run for State Parliament in order to maintain a strong Independent voice in the inner city.

She was elected the Member for Bligh in March 1988 and was re-elected in May 1991, when her vote increased from 26.72% to 43.5%.

Since then she has worked closely with the Independent members for the South Coast and Manly to develop the Charter of Reform, to bring stability to the State, democratise the Parliament and make Government accountable.

Clover is married with two children. Her husband is an architect. She was educated at Loreto (Kirribilli), Dominican Convent (Moss Vale), Sydney University, Sydney Teacher's College and taught in London and Sydney up until the time of her election as Member for Bligh.

State Parliament House, NSW

RESOURCE SHEET 2A

Focus task:

Read this text and Resource Sheet 2 on Clover Moore and take notes about her public life.

Clover Moore MP

Independent Member for Bligh

Married, two children.

Bachelor of Arts degree and Diploma of Education, University of Sydney.

1980, elected Alderman, South Sydney Council.

1981-87, Alderman, Sydney City Council.

1986, Executive, Local Government Women's Association.

1988, elected to the State seat of Bligh.

1991, re-elected.

A pioneer of the community-based Independent Movement in local and state politics.

Especially concerned about quality of representation — participatory democracy, social justice and the urban and natural environment.

Co-sponsor of The Charter of Reform adopted by the 50th Parliament which promotes greater Parliamentary democracy, open government and the strengthening of individual and community rights.

State Parliament House, NSW

RESOURCE SHEET 3

Don Burke

Don Burke has been a gardener and pet breeder for as long as he can remember, having bred birds since the age of eight.

He attended St Aloysious College, Milsons Point in Sydney and went on to the University of Sydney, originally undertaking studies in Dentistry. He later changed to Agricultural Science and then abandoned this to attend the Ryde School of Horticulture where he obtained Honours and Distinction Certificates in Horticulture and Tree surgery.

Following a period of lecturing in Horticulture and Marketing and a number of years as a nurseryman, Don began his media career in the late 1970s.

He appeared on the *Mike Walsh Show*, the Tonight Shows hosted by Don Lane, Daryl Somers and Bert Newton and from 1982 until the end of 1987 was a regular for the Nine Network's *Today* program and is still seen on *Midday with Ray Martin*.

His immensely popular television program, *Burke's Backyard*, which commenced on air in September 1987 has undoubtedly been the television success story to come out of the 1980s. Viewed by well in excess of two million Australians every Friday evening (and repeated every Saturday), the program regularly wins its time slot and in 1990, '91 and '92 won the Logie Award for Most Popular Lifestyle Program. Don also received the Variety Club's "Television Personality of the Year" award for 1989 and 1990.

Don's media activities are not, however, confined to television.

In 1980, Don joined Radio 2WS and then moved on to 2UE in 1983 where his top rating radio program, also titled *Burke's Backyard*, was heard for three hours each Saturday and Sunday morning in Sydney and on 2HD in Newcastle until 1990. The program won a Peter Award for Best Regular Specialist Consultancy Program in Australasia in 1984 and was nominated in this category in 1985 and 1986 — the Peter Awards ceasing to exist after 1986.

Since the early 1980s, Don has written for numerous publications. For three years he was Gardening Editor for the *Daily Mirror*, then a feature writer for *Australian House & Garden*, contributed a monthly column in the *Australian Women's Weekly* and was Associate Editor of the leading horticultural trade journal for Australasia, *Australian Horticulture*. He currently writes a weekly column for the *Sunday Telegraph* in Sydney, *The Sunday Mail* in Adelaide, *The Sunday Times* in Perth and *The Courier Mail* in Brisbane.

Don's books have included *The Lazy Gardener* (which sold in excess of 100,00 copies, and is currently under consideration for release on the West Coast of the USA); his specialist book, *Growing Grevilleas* (now going into its third printing); and *Burke's Gardening Almanac* released in October, 1987. Don was also a contributor to the major Weldon publication, *Australia The Beautiful Gardens*.

cont.

RESOURCE SHEET 3 (continued)

Volume One of the *Burke's Backyard Information Guide* released in December 1989, became the fastest selling book in Australian history. Volumes Two and Three have subsequently been published and achieved great success on the best-seller lists.

And to complete the list, Don's first video, *How To Create A Beaut Backyard* jointly produced by Channel Nine's *Burke's Backyard* and CBS Records, was released late in 1989, quickly doing double platinum.

With expertise in all facets of the media, Don educates and entertains with a wealth of information about the pleasures of outdoor living. Subjects such as dogs, cats, birds, wildlife, swimming pools, barbecues, natural history, small farming and hobby activities are all dealt with from time to time along with other topics of general interest.

In 1991 Don's production company, CTC Productions, took over the production of *Burke's Backyard* with plans to produce specialist documentaries and other new programs.

President of the Australian Institute of Horticulture (NSW) for three years from 1980 until 1982, Don was made a Fellow of the Institute in 1987, an honour which is highly regarded amongst professional horticulturists. In subsequent years, Don has also joined the boards of environmental groups Landcare Australia and Sustainable Development Australia.

Don's interests range from philosophy through to the Marx Brothers, animal breeding with particular emphasis on genetics, bird keeping, a long interest and participation in environmental issues and, of course, plants.

Aged 44, Don and his wife Marea, have two children Christine, 22, and Sean, 12. At their home on the bushy outskirts of Sydney, they keep two dogs, a fox terrier and three miniature fox terriers, a Turkish Van cat, numerous birds, sheep, ducks and chooks, and various other strange animals.

Channel Nine

RESOURCE SHEET 3A

Cohesive Links

underline = time words
○ = lexical items which show a link

Don Burke

1. Don Burke has been a gardener and pet breeder for as long as he can remember, having bred birds since the age of eight.

2. He attended St Aloysius College, Milsons Point in Sydney and went on to the University of Sydney, originally undertaking studies in Dentistry. He later changed to Agricultural Science and then abandoned this to attend the Ryde School of Horticulture where he obtained Honours and Distinction Certificates in Horticulture and Tree Surgery.

3. Following a period of lecturing in Horticulture and Marketing and a number of years as a nurseryman, Don began his media career in the late 1970s.

4. He appeared on the 'Mike Walsh Show', the 'Tonight Show' hosted by Don Lane, Daryl Somers and Bert Newton and from 1982 until the end of 1987 was a regular for the Nine Network's 'Today' program and is still seen on 'Midday with Ray Martin'.

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8. Since the early 1980s, Don has written for numerous publications. For three years he was Gardening Editor of the 'Daily Mirror', then a feature writer for 'Australian House and Garden', contributed a monthly column in the 'Australian Women's Weekly' and was Associate Editor of the leading horticultural trade journal for Australasia, 'Australian Horticulture'. He currently writes a weekly column for the 'Sunday Telegraph' in Sydney, the 'Sunday Mail' in Adelaide, 'The Sunday Times' in Perth and 'The Courier Mail' in Brisbane.

RESOURCE SHEET 3A (continued)

Cohesive Links

9. Don's books have included 'The Lazy Gardener' (which sold in excess of 100,000 copies, and is currently under consideration for release on the West Coast of the USA); his specialist book 'Growing Grevilleas' (now going into its third printing); and 'Don Burke's Gardening Almanac' released in October, 1987. Don was also a contributor to the major Weldon publication. 'Australia The Beautiful Gardens'.

10. Volume One of the 'Burke's Backyard Information Guide', released in December 1989, became the fastest selling book in Australian history. Volumes Two and Three have subsequently been published and achieved great success on the best-seller lists.

11. And to complete the list, Don't first video 'How to Create a Beaut Backyard' jointly produced by Channel 9's 'Burke's Backyard' and CBS Records, was released late in 1989, quickly going double platinum.

12. With expertise in all facets of the media, Don educates and entertains with a wealth of information about the pleasures of outdoor living. Subjects such as dogs, cats, birds, wildlife, swimming pools, barbecues, natural history, small farming and hobby activities are all dealt with from time to time along with other topics of general interest.

13. In 1991 Don's production company, CTC Productions, took over the production of 'Burke's Backyard' with plans to produce specialist documentaries and other new programs.

14. President of the Australian Institute of Horticulture (NSW) for three years from 1980 until 1982, Don was made a Fellow of the Institute in 1987, an honour which is highly regarded amongst professional horticulturists. In subsequent years, Don has also joined the boards of environmental groups Landcare Australia and Sustainable Development Australia.

15. Don's interests range from philosophy through to the Marx Brothers, animal breeding with particular emphasis on genetics, bird keeping, a long interest and participation in environmental issues, and of course, plants.

16. Aged 44, Don and his wife, Marea, have two children Christine 22, and Sean, 12. At their home on the bushy outskirts of Sydney, they keep two dogs, a foxterrier and three miniature fox terriers, a Turkish Van cat, numerous birds, sheep, ducks and chooks, and various other strange animals.

Channel Nine

RESOURCE SHEET 4

Premier of New South Wales
Australia

JOHN FAHEY MP

Member for Southern Highlands

John Fahey was appointed Premier of New South Wales on 24 June 1992. He entered Parliament in March 1984 as the Member for Camden. In November 1985 he was elevated to the front bench as Shadow Minister for Mineral Resources and Energy, then in May 1986 as Shadow Minister for Industrial Relations and Employment.

After redistribution of boundaries, Mr Fahey won the seat of Southern Highlands in 1988. He was appointed Minister for Industrial Relations and Employment and Minister Assisting the Premier in the first Coalition Government. His responsibilities were expanded in July 1990 when he became Minister for Industrial Relations and Minister for Further Education, Training and Employment and was reappointed to these portfolios after the 1991 Election. He was appointed Minister Assisting the Premier on the recommendations of the Building Industry Royal Commission.

He has earned a reputation as a "quiet achiever" and a willing listener. He has been responsible for the sweeping changes to the Industrial Relations system, Workers Compensation, Superannuation and TAFE. His trademark is extensive consultation with all parties.

He is a solicitor by profession and lives in Bowral with his wife Colleen and their three children, Matthew, 22, Melanie, 19 and Tiffany, 13. He was born in Wellington, New Zealand on 10 January 1945 and moved with his family to Picton, New South Wales in 1955.

Mr Fahey was educated at St Anthony's Convent, Picton (Primary) and won a bursary to Chevalier College Bowral (Secondary). He obtained a Diploma of Law through the University of Sydney Law Extension Committee and practised Law at Camden from 1971 to 1986.

State Parliament House, NSW

RESOURCE SHEET 4A

FAHEY, Hon. John Joseph

Electorate: Southern Highlands

Liberal Party

Parliamentary service:

First elected MP for Camden 24 March 1984, MP for Southern Highlands since 19 March 1988. Minister for Industrial Relations and Employment and Minister Assisting the Premier since March 1988. Former Minister for Corrective Services May–June 1988.

Party activity:

Previously Shadow Minister for Industrial Relations and Employment 1986–88.
Shadow Minister for Mineral Resources and Energy 1985–86.
Former President Camden Branch and SEC. Pre-selected for Camden in 1983.

Community activity:

Former President Camden Rugby League Football Club, Member (and former Secretary) Camden Rotary Club, Member (and former Vice President) Macarthur Regional Law Society. Secretary of Camden Rotary Club. Involved for many years in local sporting, welfare and service organisations.

Personal:

Married to Colleen, three children (Matthew, Melanie and Tiffany).

Qualifications, occupations, interests:

Dip Law
Previously senior partner in Camden legal firm John Fahey, Scarle and Co.
Interests include all sports, particularly rugby league and sailing.

Electorate description:

Rural
Located within Southern Tablelands Statistical Sub-division and Southern Coastal Statistical Agricultural Area. Principal towns: Berry, Bomaderry, Bowral, Marulan, Mittagong, Moss Vale, North Nowra, Tahmoor.

Area: 4,410 sq km Population: 49,458 Enrolment: 32,956

State Parliament House, NSW

RESOURCE SHEET 5

Bob Carr M.P.

LEADER OF THE OPPOSITION

BIOGRAPHICAL DETAILS

- Born September 28, 1947
- Graduate of the University of New South Wales, BA (Hons)
- Journalist on ABC Radio current affairs programmes AM and PM 1969–72
- Education Officer for the Labour Council, 1972–78
- Industrial Relations reporter for The Bulletin 1978–83
- Recreations are bush-walking, reading and music
- Married to Helena, an economist and company director
- Lives in his electorate of Maroubra

PARLIAMENTARY DETAILS

- Elected to Parliament in October, 1983 by-election as Member for Maroubra;
- Appointed Chairman of the Parliamentary Public Accounts Committee in March 1984;
- Legislative Assembly representative on the Council of the University of New South Wales;
- Minister for Planning and Environment 1984–1988;
- Minister for Consumer Affairs 1986–87;
- Minister for Heritage 1986–1988;
- Elected in April 1988 unopposed as Leader of the Opposition, Shadow Treasurer, Shadow Minister for Ethnic Affairs and Arts.
- Following the successful 1991 State election campaign, Mr Carr was re-elected unopposed as Leader of the Opposition, Shadow Treasurer, Shadow Minister for Ethnic Affairs and Arts.

ELECTORATE: MAROUBRA

- LOCATED: Sydney, South Eastern
- DESCRIPTION: Metropolitan, residential suburban and semi-industrial
- OFFICE: 1st Floor, 691 Anzac Parade Maroubra, 2035

State Parliament House, NSW

RESOURCE SHEET 6

Model biography

Linda Serra

At 18 years Linda already has 18 months work experience as a clerk. After completing her School Certificate in Year 10, she went back to school but decided at the end of Year 11 she would prefer to be employed full-time. During the Christmas break she began looking through the employment section of the newspaper, looking for a job that would provide stability and a career path.

Linda was interested in working in finance however she realised that her high school qualifications limited her job opportunities.

During this time she became aware of traineeships and thought this path could be suitable to her. She contacted the Australian Traineeship Scheme and made enquiries about obtaining a traineeship in finance. The advantages of a traineeship, she discovered, were that it combined on the job training with study which enabled her to learn new skills and gain experience in the workplace. She was paid as she learned.

She obtained a traineeship in the Ansett finance section and after she completed her 12 month traineeship Ansett offered her a permanent job as a clerk in the finance section.

RESOURCE SHEET 7

Stages

Linda Serra

Title	**Linda Serra**
Orientation: Educational Background	At 18 years Linda already has 18 months work experience as a clerk. After completing her School Certificate in Year 10, she went back to school but decided at the end of Year 11 she would prefer to be employed full-time. During the Christmas break she began looking through the employment section of the newspaper, looking for a job that would provide stability and a career path.
Event: Obtaining a job	Linda was interested in working in finance however she realised that her high school qualifications limited her job opportunities.
Event	During this time she became aware of traineeships and thought this path could be suitable to her. She contacted the Australian Traineeship Scheme and made enquiries about obtaining a traineeship in finance. The advantages of a traineeship, she discovered were that it combined on the job training with study which enabled her to learn new skills and gain experience in the workplace. She was paid as she learned.
Event	She obtained a traineeship in the Ansett finance section and after completing her 12 month traineeship Ansett offered her a permanent job, as a clerk in the finance section.

RESOURCE SHEET 8

Cloze

1. Read through the passage carefully.
2. Complete the blank spaces with the most appropriate words you can think of.
3. What kind of words have been clozed out?

Linda Serra

At 18 years Linda already has 18 months work experience as a clerk .... completing her School Certificate in Year 10, she went back to school .... decided at the end of Year 11 she would prefer to be employed full time. .... the Christmas break she began looking through the employment section of the newspaper, looking for a job that would provide stability and a career path.

Linda was interested in working in finance .... she realised that her high school qualifications limited her job opportunities. .... this time she became aware of traineeships and thought .... path could be suitable to her. She contacted the Australian Traineeship Scheme and made enquiries about obtaining a traineeship in finance. The advantages of a traineeship, ... discovered were that it combined on the job training with study .... enabled her to learn new skills and gain experience in the workplace. She was paid as she learned.

She obtained a traineeship in the Ansett finance section and .... completing her 12 month traineeship Ansett offered her a permanent job, as a clerk in the finance section.

RESOURCE SHEET 9

Cloze

1. Read through the passage carefully.
2. Complete the blank spaces with the most appropriate words you can think of.
3. What kind of words have been clozed out?

Linda Serra

At 18 years Linda already has 18 months work experience as a clerk. After completing her School Certificate in Year 10, she went back to school but decided at the end of Year 11 she would prefer to be .... full time. During the Christmass break she began looking through the employment section of the newspaper, ... for a job that would .... stability and a career path.

Linda was interested in working in finance however she realised that her high school qualifications limited her job opportunities.

During this time she became aware of traineeships and thought this path could be suitable to her. She .... the Australian Traineeship Scheme and made .... about obtaining a traineeship in finance. The advantages of a traineeship, she discovered were that it .... on the job training with study which enabled her to learn new skills and .... gain experience in the workplace. She was .... as she learned.

She .... a traineeship in the Ansett finance section and after completing her 12 month traineeship Ansett offered her a permanent job, as a clerk in the finance section.

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RESOURCE SHEET 10

Teacher-led Construction Version 1

Orientation: Qualifications	Clover Moore has a BA and Dip Ed from Sydney University. She went into politics in 1980 as an Independent Alderman for South Sydney Council.
Event: Early political career	She went into local politics because there were few child care centres parks and other services for locals and the Council didn't seem to care about the local environment.
Event	In 1981 she joined Sydney City Council and worked there for six years. She worked hard in the City development on Planning Committees.
Event	Clover ran for State Parliament in 1987 as an Independent and was elected as the member for Bligh in 1988 and 1991.
Event: Current Work	She pushed the Independent Movement at local and state politics. Her concerns are quality of representation in politics social justice and the environment.
	A big achievement has been the charter of reforms which she did with two other MPs. This work is for greater Parliamentary democracy, open government and making strong individual and community rights.

RESOURCE SHEET 11

Teacher-led Construction Version 2

Clover Moore

Clover Moore completed a Bachelor of Arts Degree and Diploma of Education from Sydney University. She taught in London and Sydney until she entered politics in 1980 as an Independent Alderman for South Sydney Council.

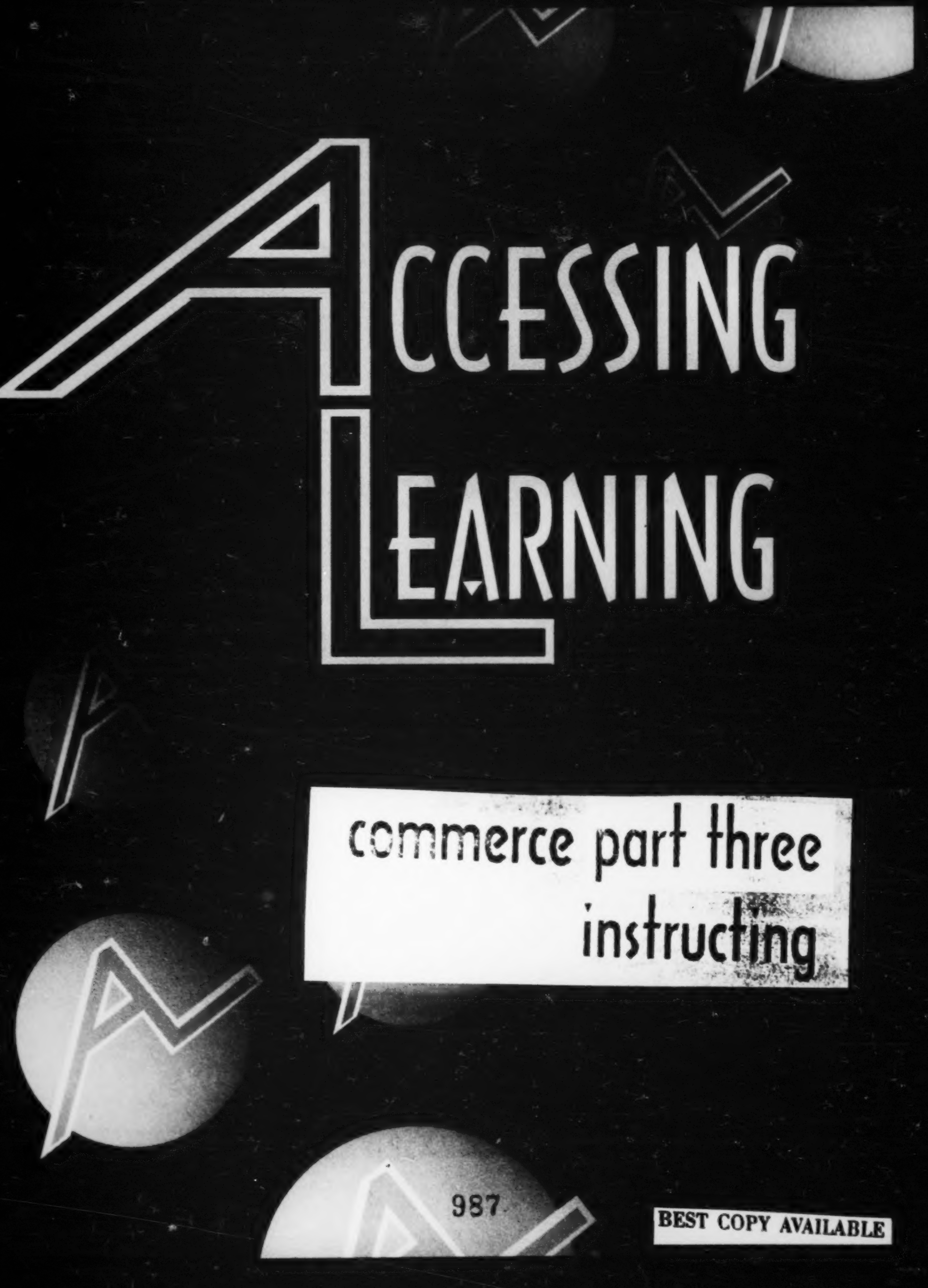
She entered local politics because of the appalling lack of local facilities and disregard for the urban environment.

In 1981 she joined Sydney City Council and for the next six years she was one of its most vigorous and prominent Counsellors particularly on the City's Development and Planning Committees.

In 1987 Clover decided to run for State Parliament in order to maintain a strong independent voice in the inner city. She was elected as the member for Bligh in 1988 and again in 1991.

Clover has been a pioneer of the community-based Independent Movement in local and state politics. She has been especially concerned about quality of representation, parliamentary democracy, social justice and the urban and natural environment.

One of her significant achievements has been her co-sponsorship for the Charter of Reform which promotes greater parliamentary democracy, open governments, strengthening of individual and community rights.



ACCESSING LEARNING

commerce part three
instructing

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PART THREE OVERVIEW - INSTRUCTING

Students examine job advertisements and construct a protocol of important points to remember when attending an interview.

	Content and Tasks	Assessment
Preparing the Context	Teacher discusses procedures for obtaining a job.	Informal assessment of students' understanding of procedures for obtaining a job
Developing the Context	Reading of typical job advertisements for understanding of abbreviations and requirements of employment; study of a procedure for job hunting	Informal assessment of the students' knowledge of abbreviations and language features of procedures
Modelling	Deconstruction of a protocol for writing a curriculum vitae	Informal assessment of students' understanding of the concept of stages, ability to break text into stages, and recognition of genre-appropriate language
Teacher-led Construction	Joint construction of a protocol on important points when going for an interview	Informal assessment of students' ability to make use of appropriate text stages and language choices for the content.
Student-led Construction	Students write a procedure for getting a job.	Formal assessment of students' ability to apply knowledge of the procedure genre to the steps required for obtaining a job, based on criteria established during the cycle
Resource Sheets	Activity sheets and resource sheets are grouped as Resource Sheets at the end of each Part. They are referred to by number in the text.	

PART THREE - INSTRUCTING

PREPARING THE CONTEXT

The teacher leads a general discussion on the following questions:

- How did members of your family go about getting a job?
- How could you be preparing yourself for a job now?

DEVELOPING THE CONTEXT

The teacher hands out Resource Sheets 1 and 2, readings and a worksheet on job advertisements. The purpose of these activities is to show students the relationship between job responsibilities, income, and qualifications, and to make them familiar with the language used in job advertisements in newspapers.

Students read the advertisements, using the explanations of abbreviations on Resource Sheet 2 then answer the questions which focus on themselves in relation to jobs.

Resource Sheet 3 is a reading on where to look for jobs. Resource Sheet 4 is a cloze which draws attention to the structure of these instructions. Point out to the students that the Theme in each step is a verb.

MODELLING

The teacher puts Resource Sheet 5, a model curriculum vitae, on OHT and points out the stages in this protocol (Resource Sheet 6).

Language activity

Ask students to underline the main participants. Are they human or non-human? Why is this the case?

Discuss with the students that the main participants in the passage are non-human, which is characteristic of this type of protocol.

TEACHER-LED CONSTRUCTION

The teacher and students jointly construct a protocol on important points to remember when going for an interview. Teacher and student versions are included as samples, Resource Sheets 7 and 8.

Version 1 Correct staging	becomes	**Version 2** Correct staging and appropriate language
Do's and *Don'ts* of Job Interviews		Warnings and Recommendations for Job Interviews
Don't chew gum		Do not smoke or chew gum

STUDENT-LED CONSTRUCTION

The students write a procedure for getting a job, such as the one they selected from the advertisement reading and exercise.

RESOURCE SHEET 1 Typical job advertisements (See Resource Sheet 2 for key to abbreviations)

TEMP $14P/H.

4-5 Wks

SEC/WP Start 20/11 St Leonards 1 girl office. Exp. Multimate W.P. with s'hand adv. Ph Sue Rust 419 8988. Layton Rust Personnel, 65 Archer St., Chatswood.

Member N.A.P.C LN685

DEMONSTRATOR

PART TIME EASTERN SUBURBS

Well known pharmaceutical Co. needs A1 people person to demonstrate their product range. Exp essent. 9hrs pw @$14 per hour + car mileage. Call Dianne Ward on 876-1214

Pharmaceutical People Ln 107

General Practitioner

Full-time G.P. positions are available in Warringah Mall and Chatswood 24-hour Medical Centres. Preference for those who qualify for Vocational Registration. Centres have 35 full-time G.Ps supported by 20 consultants and full diagnostic back-up.

Full-time position requires commitment to general practice and a share of weekend and evening work.

1992 full-time G.P. income nett all expenses (except tax) was in range of $96,500-$215,000.

Successful applicants could expect to earn this in their first year. Initial enquiry 905 4705 b.h.

SECRETARY 27-35 yrs $34 pkg.

MARKETING

Property Division of major Investment Bank requires a confident assistant and administrator to support group of Snr. execs. emphais on client liaison, so A1 communication skills as only 50 p.c. of role is W'Perfect5.1. CBD.

Anni McDougall 299 1251

MPM PERSONAL

MEMBER N.A.P.C. LN 243

BLIGH

BOOKKEEPER
$28K
CITY 25yrs.
plus.

DYNAMIC PERSON

To join this telecommunications co. and fully support the accountants in the day to day operations and the general administration of the office. This is an extremely busy position and would only suit independent self starters who thrive on challenges. Lotus 123 and IBM MS Word skills essential.

Call Jennifer Caporn 235 3699
BLIGH APPOINTMENTS
Mem. NAPC lic. No 1558

APPLY NOW!! Students Welcome

NO EXP NECESSARY!!!

Our toy and giftware co is overloaded and shorthanded. We have guaranteed work avail for the summer, filling positions in sales service and marketing. Exp not necessary as we are flooded with stock. Preferred age 18 yrs & over.

Incentives + commission only.

CALL Mon-Sat 319-4206

Beauty Therapist

Part-time position, with experience in acrylic nails. Award Wage.

Phone 349 6439

KU-RING-GAI
MUNICIPAL
COUNCIL

APPRENTICESHIPS

Applications are invited from persons interested in undertaking apprenticeships in:

Horticulture -
Parks/Gardens
(three positions)

with a Council supportive training programmes, and its staff.

The weekly rate is in the range of $222.00 to $355.00 depending on age, skills and experience.

The successful applicants will be required to undertake the relevant trade-based course. School Certificate is the essential minimum qualification.

The indenture of the apprenticeship is for up four (4) years. A wide variety of experience will be gained in the trade by moving periodically to various work locations.

Conditions include a 38 hour week with rostered day off on a 9-day two week cycle and time off to attend the relevant trade course.

Council has adopted a policy of a smoke free work environment.

Further enquiries may be made by telephoning Mr H. Koning (Horticulture 498 0908)

Written applications stating personal details, work experience and education should be addressed to the Personnel Manager with recent references. Applications close 27 November, 1992. Interviews will be held early by mid December, with a view to commencing approximately 1 February, 1993.

J. Verscio
Acting Town Clerk
P.O. Box 15
GORDON 2072

[redacted]

Credit - Smithfield

TICK THIS ONE!

My client needs a motivated self starter. Ideally you will have had at least 5 yrs in a team credit Dept and enjoy the day to day functions. Your presentation and speech must be A1, as face to face client visits will be part of your job. You will also have handled large accounts, reconciliations and liaised with Sales Reps. Great opportunity for flexible 28-35yrs. $28K. Like to know more?

Phone Catherine Or Justin On 726-4466
CENTACOM FAIRFIEID
No Fee to Applicants LN 302

COMPUTER TECHNICIAN
TIME LINK PTY. LTD

Leading Computer Co requires experienced Technician for both Artarmon (head office) and Parramattta branch. Applicants must be experienced in DOS PS2 compatible printers modems, laptops and be prepared to use own motor vehicle. If you are a self-motivated person with the above qualifications and wish to continue a career in the computer industry, pleas fact your resume to: Attn: Scott McIntyre, fax 906 2123

SCREEN PRINTER

Required for casual work. Experience a must. Hourly rate. Phone Phil Ross on 630 4700.

CREDIT OFFICER

WETHERILL PARK

Industry leader req person with good experience with large accounts. Good rec skills, face to face customer liaison, computerised Open Items system exp. Good sal neg. Own transport. Age 25-35 preferred. Call (047) 31 2807

PENRITH PERSONNEL Ln1288

JUNIORS Preferred age 15-17 years. (20 positions) required to sell confectionery full-time to offices and factories. Mon-Fri, 8.30 am to 4.30 pm. Work in a supervised Sales Teams with leading Co. in NSW. Everyone interviewed gets a job. Income to $250 p.w. based on commission only basis plus bonuses.

Ph: 831 3889 or 624 8232

ELECTRICAL/ELECTRONIC

SALES $50K PLUS

Leading Process Control Co. W. Subs. seeks person with 3yrs. local sales exp. and the necessary quals. to provide exceptional service to clients.

ELECTRICAL/ELECTRONIC

Field Engr $50K Plus

MEDICAL ELECTRONICS

Leading monitoring/diagnostic eqt. co. N. Subs, seek qual. Engineer with 3 yrs. exp servicing installations in N.S.W. hospitals/clinics.

Peter Schlesinger & Assoc.
P.O. Box 1810 Chatswood 2057.
Ph. 411 1055 L.N. 283

ARMIDALE STUDENTS' ASSOCIATION

UNIVERSITY OF NEW ENGLAND

DENTAL OFFICER

A position is available for a Dental Surgeon with at least two years experience. The position is with the Armidale Students Association Dental Clinic at the University of New England. This is a solo practice. All types of dental treatment are undertaken.

ESSENTIAL: Have surgical experience in third molar removal and in theatre.

Have a friendly, easy going and tolerant deposition, and must be able to relate to students.

Be prepared to move to Armidale for a long-term position of at least three years.

SALARY: The salary package is negotiable ($50,000 plus per annum).

Written applications including details of qualifications and experience together with names and telephone numbers of three referees, should be forwarded to the Armidale Students' Association, by 5 p.m. Friday, November 27, 1992.

Further inquiries can be made by contacting the President Mr Steven Blaney, on (067) 73 2593 or Armidale Students' Association, University of New England, Armidale, N.S.W. 2351/

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RESOURCE SHEET 2

Activity

Read the job advertisements carefully. To help you understand them, some abbreviations and explanations are listed below.

- Temp — temporary
- $14 P/H — $14 per hour
- Sec/W.P. — secretary/word processing
- S'hand — shorthand
- exp. — experience
- adv. — advantage
- essent. — essential
- $34K — $34,000
- pkg. — package
- snr — senior
- execs — executives
- Member NAPC — LN 243 — you are applying to a registered personnel consultancy, not directly to the employer.
- Casual work non-permanent position — hours may be irregular, payment is at an hourly rate.
- req — required
- sal. neg. — salary negotiable
- incentives + commission only—wage is not being offered, income is determined by sales levels.
- rostered day off — an allocated day off provided the hours have already been worked.
- Fax your resume—instead of posting your resume or curriculum vitae you may send a fax or electronic transfer of written information. The advantage is that a fax is almost instantaneous.

Questions:

1. Rank jobs from HIGHEST income to LOWEST income.
2. Which profession earns the highest income? Suggest a reason for this.
3. List all jobs which you could apply for **now.**
   a. Describe the positions and income offered.
   b. What questions would you need to ask if being interviewed for these positions?

RESOURCE SHEET 3

Reading

In today's competitive job market, it is important to gain as many skills and qualifications as possible. The more highly qualified a person is for a job, the greater the chance of obtaining that job will be.

Highly skilled jobs attract larger salaries than unskilled jobs, but of course these jobs also result in greater responsibility being placed on the worker.

Longer, unpaid hours of work, increased stress due to work commitments and deadlines, and often time away from home are some of the extra demands placed on workers in highly paid positions.

When searching for a job there are a number of avenues available. The list below provides some of these alternatives:

1. Look in the papers in the employment section. (Ensure you buy the paper that advertises the type of position you are seeking, eg management positions are advertised in *The Sydney Morning Herald* and *The Australian.*
2. Check the local paper.
3. Ring or call into employment agencies, eg CES or personnel companies.
4. Ask around the local area.
5. Use personal contacts.
6. Buy specialist journals, eg computer magazines, as sometimes jobs are advertised in these.

Finally, it is important that you are persistent in your job searching — set-backs are to be expected; losing hope and deciding not to bother looking for a job are not real solutions.

RESOURCE SHEET 4

Activity

Fill in the cloze passage below.

When searching for a job there are a number of avenues available.

The list below provides some of these alternatives.

1. .... in the papers in the Employment Section (.......................... you buy the paper that advertises the type of position you are seeking eg management positions are advertised in *The Sydney Morning Herald* and *The Australian.*)

2. .... the local paper.

3. .... or call into employment agencies, eg CES or personnel companies.

4. .... around the local area.

5. .... personal contacts.

6. .... specialist journals, eg computer magazines, as sometimes jobs are advertised in these.

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RESOURCE SHEET 5

Model

Preparing a Curriculum Vitae

Key characteristics of a successful curriculum vitae.

To obtain the job you desire, a written application is often needed; with such an application care is necessary in a number of areas.

Presentation is important therefore spelling must be accurate and expression clear. Typing your curriculum vitae is recommended.

The following personal details must be included.

1. Name and address
2. Date of birth
3. Nationality
4. School record
5. Academic qualifications
6. Work experience record
7. Other interests and hobbies
8. Copies of references
9. Names and contact number of referees

The above personal details are to enable the employer to gain a brief impression of your potential as an employee.

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RESOURCE SHEET 6

Stages

Goals **Preparing a Curriculum Vitae**

Key characteristics of a successful curriculum vitae.

To obtain the job you desire, a written application is often needed; with such an application care is necessary in a number of areas.

Conditions Presentation is important therefore spelling must be accurate and expression clear. Typing your curriculum vitae is recommended.

The following personal details must be included.

1. Name and address
2. Date of birth
3. Nationality
4. School record
5. Academic qualifications
6. Work experience record
7. Other interests and hobbies
8. Copies of references
9. Names and contact number of referees

The above personal details are to enable the employer to gain a brief impression of your potential as an employee.

RESOURCE SHEET 7

Teacher-led construction Version 1

Do's & *Don'ts* of Job Interviews

Goal	***Do's* & *Don'ts* of Job Interviews**
General Conditions (Warnings)	Don't... chew gum slouch smoke wear inappropriate clothes be late
General Conditions (Recommendations)	Do... speak clearly sit up straight be polite be on time be interested be interesting smile bring your CV with your supporting documents ask questions inform referees before your interview that they may be contacted.

RESOURCE SHEET 8

Teacher-led construction Version 2

Warnings & Recommendations for Job Interviews

Things to be aware of when attending a job interview:

1. Do not smoke or chew gum.
2. Do not slouch during the interview.
3. Wear appropriate clothes and be tidy.
4. Do not be late.
5. Speak clearly and ask questions.
6. Be polite.
7. Try to smile.
8. Bring your CV with supporting documents to the interview.
9. Inform your referees that they may be contacted.

ACCESSING LEARNING

commerce part four
explaining

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PART FOUR OVERVIEW - EXPLAINING

The rights and responsibilities of employers and employees are presented. An account of the growth of trade union movement is provided.

	Content and Tasks	Assessment
Preparing the Context	Teacher discusses aspects of being employed.	Informal assessment of students' understanding
Developing the Context	Students study rights and responsibilities of employers and employees in the past and the present through readings and constructing a taxonomy, and look at technical vocabulary of employment conditions.	Informal assessment of the students' understanding of content through success in language activities
Modelling	Deconstruction of the model account of the growth of the Trade Union movement and dictogloss activity to analyse the build-up of information	Informal assessment of students' ability to break text into stages, identify the function each stage fulfils, and to recognise genre-appropriate language choices and the importance of Given/New structure in building information. Student self-assessment in dictogloss
Teacher-led Construction	Teacher and students develop an account of how the unions changed the responsibilities of employers.	Informal assessment of students' ability to make use of appropriate text stages and language choices in the content
Developing the Content	Through language activities students closely examine readings on the origins of trade unions and the history of trade unions in Australia, with particular attention to the use of emotive words and the understanding of bias in writing.	Informal assessment of the students' understanding of relationship between workers, unions and politics through the ability to complete language activities successfully
Student-led Construction	Students write accounts of how unions have changed the responsibilities of employers.	Formal assessment of the students' ability to apply the knowledge of subject content in a successful account, based on critera established during the unit.
Resource Sheets	Activity sheets and resource sheets are grouped as Resource Sheets at the end of each Part. They are referred to by number in the text.	

PART FOUR - EXPLAINING

PREPARING THE CONTEXT

The teacher leads a general discussion on the following questions:

- What do you as an employee have to do in order to keep a job?
- What do you think the responsibilities of the employer are to you?
- What responsibilities do teachers have?
- What responsibilities do students have?

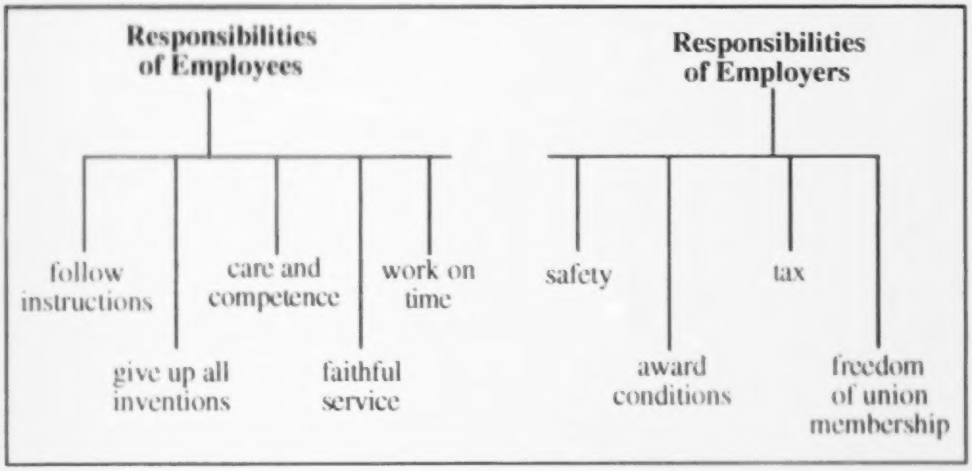
Students may provide personal anecdotal evidence.

DEVELOPING THE CONTEXT

Teacher hands out Resource Sheet 1, *Rights and Responsibilities of Employers and Employees.*

Students complete sentence interpretations on Resource Sheet 2 and construct a taxonomy from the reading.

Sample taxonomy


Responsibilities of Employees
follow instructions
give up all inventions
care and competence
faithful service
work on time
Responsibilities of Employers
safety
award conditions
tax
freedom of union membership

Teacher hands out Resource Sheet 3, *Who wants the good old days back? a*nd students complete focus question.

Using Resource Sheet 4, *Terms Relating to Earning an Income*, the teacher explains meanings of technical words.

Cut up the text into terms and definitions and have students reassemble them correctly.

Students could watch a video relevant to the topic such as Accident in commerce and the Law — NSW Dept of Education (1982).

MODELLING

The teacher puts on OHT a model explanation which accounts for the growth of the trade union movement (Resource Sheet 5).

The teacher demonstrates the stages in the model (see Resource Sheet 6).

Dictogloss

For further information on dictogloss refer to Module 5.

1. The students have been prepared for the topic 'the growth of the trade union movement' in the dictogloss by the previous activity (deconstruction of the stages in the model).

2. Group the students and prepare them to note key words.

3. Read the following section of the model at normal speed. Students are to listen but not write.

> A sweeping economic revolution began in England during the 18th century. This radically changed the workplace in Europe and later across the world.
>
> The economic revolution began in agriculture as scientific methods were applied to farming. Demand for farm workers declined as those displaced moved to the cities seeking employment.
>
> At the same time, scientific methods were creating a new form of industry, which was no longer based in homes. Large-scale production grew, making factories the common workplace for many.

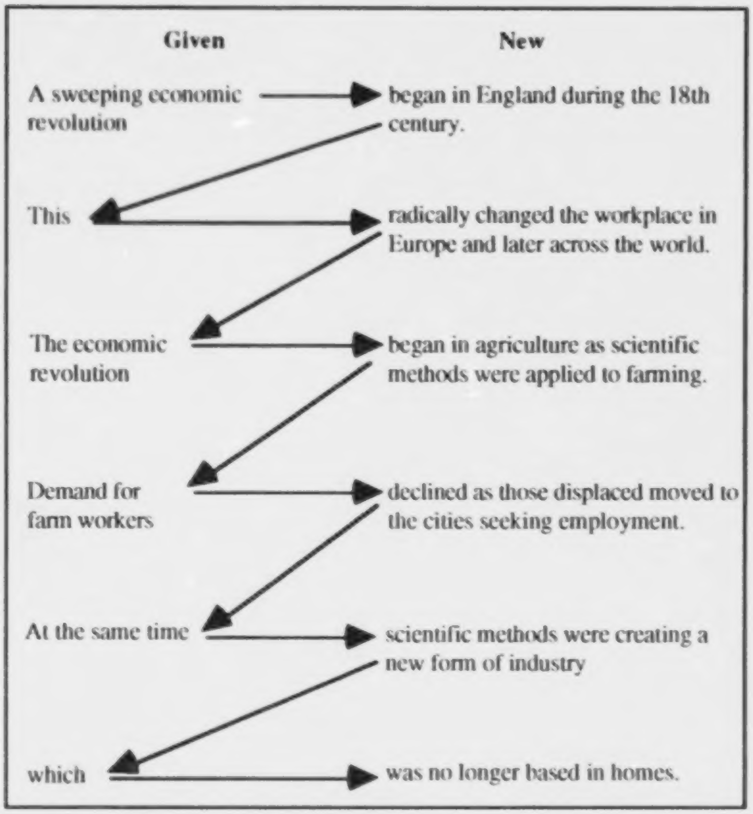
4. Reread, pausing slightly at end of each sentence while the students note key words.

5. In groups, students reconstruct text as best they can, while the teacher gives guidance to groups as needed.

The teacher and students together explore versions on board and adjust.

Commentary

In order to guide students during steps 6 and 7, the teacher needs to understand the essential language structure which underlies this kind of explanatory writing, that is, the structure of Given and New which builds the information up as the text proceeds. Following is a break-up of the Given and New structure in the dictogloss.



Given	New
A sweeping economic revolution	began in England during the 18th century.
This	radically changed the workplace in Europe and later across the world.
The economic revolution	began in agriculture as scientific methods were applied to farming.
Demand for farm workers	declined as those displaced moved to the cities seeking employment.
At the same time	scientific methods were creating a new form of industry
which	was no longer based in homes.

The final sentence of the text draws together all the previous lines of reasoning rather than just being built from the previous sentence. That is, it summarises all the factors presented: *Large-scale production grew, making factories the common workplace for many.*

The student versions of the text may well confuse the relationship between participants, for example the connection between radical change in the workplace and the economic revolution. Students may also have difficulty in drawing the relationship between the line of reasoning in the implication sequence and the conclusion.

In other words, as readers we use implicit knowledge of Given/New to follow the build-up of knowledge. By exploring this, teachers can assist students not only to accurately interpret relationships in their reading, but also to clearly sequence their explanations.

TEACHER-LED CONSTRUCTION

The teacher and students construct an account of how unions changed the responsibility of employers.

Version 1 Correct staging	becomes	**Version 2** Correct staging and appropriate language
I have found out that unions have taken power away from the bosses and given it to the workers.		There has been a shift in power away from the employers towards the employees due to union activity.
This began in Britain.		This trend was a transplant of the union movement from Britain to Australia.
Before then bosses were totally in charge at work but unions made them be able to be questioned about what did.		In the 19th century employers wielded tremendous power in the workplace.

Extended examples of Version 1 and 2 are on Resource Sheets 7 and 8.

DEVELOPING THE CONTEXT

Students extend their knowledge of unionism to the growth of trade unions in Australia and undertake language activities to prepare for writing an account of the changed roles of employers and employees.

Aural/Oral Cloze, Resource Sheet 9

Aim:
1. To encourage active listening.
2. To develop vocabulary.
3. To emphasise main points of topic.

Method:
1. Blank out appropriate words/numbers or phrases from the reading (Resource Sheet 10).
2. Students read through sheet themselves to get an idea of context.
3. Teacher reads complete passage onto a tape. Students follow without filling in—concentrate on message.
4. Tape played again. Students take notes as to missing words.
5. Individually or in groups of three (maximum) students reconstruct complete text.

Teachers and students analyse the reading, *The First Unions,* Resource Sheet 11, and identify the language features which characterise explanations in History.

Focus questions, Paragraph 1

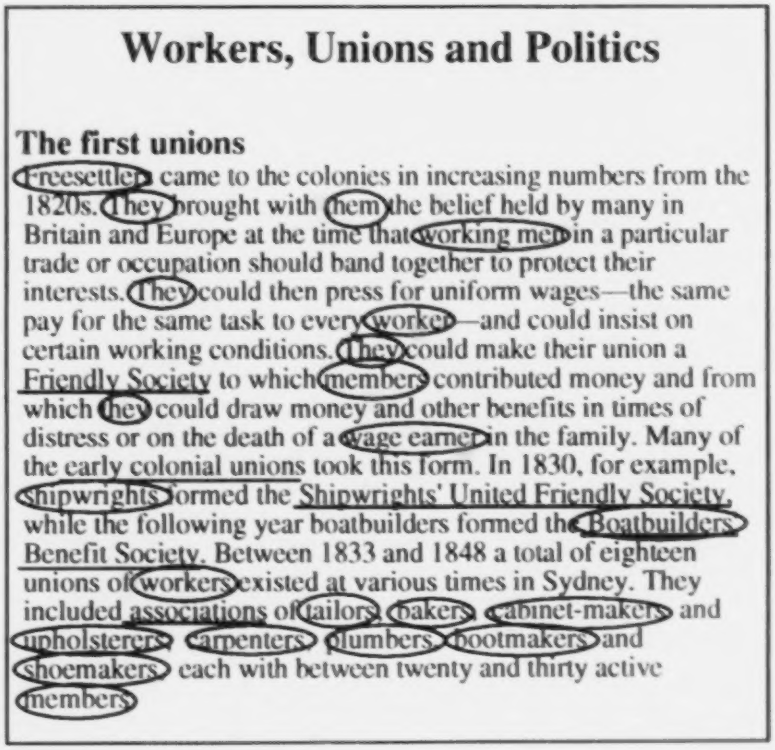
- What were uniform wages?
- What was a Friendly Society?
- What is paragraph 1 about? How do you know?

In order to answer the question, *How do you know?* the teacher asks students to circle in red every word that represents the workers, and underline every word that represents the unions.

The teacher then points out that the large number of words circled and underlined in the paragraph all relate to workers and unions. This indicates that they are the main participants in the paragraph. Students can use their knowledge of this grammar features to answer the question, *How do you know?*

The teacher asks students to provide a suitable title for the passage and takes the opportunity to remind students about the usefulness of the title in predicting what the text will be about. The teacher should also point out that poorly written titles could mislead the reader.

⬭ = workers underline = unions



Workers, Unions and Politics

The first unions

Freesettlers came to the colonies in increasing numbers from the 1820s. They brought with them the belief held by many in Britain and Europe at the time that working men in a particular trade or occupation should band together to protect their interests. They could then press for uniform wages—the same pay for the same task to every worker—and could insist on certain working conditions. They could make their union a Friendly Society to which members contributed money and from which they could draw money and other benefits in times of distress or on the death of a wage earner in the family. Many of the early colonial unions took this form. In 1830, for example, shipwrights formed the Shipwrights' United Friendly Society, while the following year boatbuilders formed the Boatbuilders' Benefit Society. Between 1833 and 1848 a total of eighteen unions of workers existed at various times in Sydney. They included associations of tailors, bakers, cabinet-makers, upholsterers, carpenters, plumbers, bootmakers and shoemakers, each with between twenty and thirty active members.

Paragraph 2

Ask students to rewrite the nominalised sentence below in a simpler form.

> But those in authority had no intention of allowing working people to dictate to their employers.

A simplified version could look like this:

> But those people who had authority did not intend to allow the people who were the workers to dictate to those who employed them.

Which version of the sentence is more appropriate in formal writing. Why?

Point out that the use of highly nominalised forms and complex nominal groups enables the writing to be regarded as more appropriate in formal contexts.

Paragraphs 3 and 4

Ask students for the unpacked form of the words or phrases in Column 1.

Column 1	Column 2
The Act remained for a year a constant source of irritation to both master and servants.	For a year, the Act constantly irritated both master and servants.
no protection	workers were not protected
a single hour's unpermitted absence	to be absent without permission for just one hour
imprisonment	to be put into prison
the punishment of the worst convicts	the worst convicts who were to be punished
a proposal was put	the government proposed
to extend the operation of the Act	to have the Act operate longer
employers will have it in their power	employers will be able to control
undefined charges of misbehaviour or misdemeanour	they will be charged when they misbehave or commit an unlawful act

- How does Column 2 writing sound?
- Which writing is more appropriate for this text?

The teacher points out to the students that nominalised forms of writing as seen in this account are more appropriate in formal writing.

Ask students to look at Paragraph 3 and underline words which show a bias. Discuss as follows:

- What emotive words did *The Sydney Gazette* use when commenting on the Act?
- What bias did this show? Why do you think this is so?

Resource Sheet 12 has emotive words circled.

Point out that emotive words can be used to position a reader to a particular viewpoint. Refer to Module 6: Critical Literacy for more information on this.

STUDENT-LED CONSTRUCTION

Students write about how unions have changed the roles of employers and employees in the workplace, having done further research in the preceding section.

RESOURCE SHEET 1

Reading 1

Rights and Responsibilities of Employers and Employees

In the workplace employers and employees have many rights but with these rights come responsibilities.

Employees

1. An employee must carry out any lawful and reasonable instructions given by their employer. Failure to do this can result in dismissal. It is the right of the employer to tell any employee what to do. However employees do not have to follow instructions that would lead them to break the law or harm themselves.

2. Employees must take care whilst doing their job and work competently. Failure to do this can result in the employee being sued for damages caused by their negligence.

3. Employees are responsible for giving honest and faithful service to their employer. The executive who takes a three-hour lunch break and returns to work drunk is giving neither honest nsor faithful service. Honest and faithful service also means the employee must be truthful about his/her qualifications and abilities at a job interview.

4. Employees must forfeit their rights to any invention made during their employment. Employers have the right to all profits from the invention as the invention was devised during their time using their materials.

Employers

1. Employers must pay at least award wages to employees. Industrial awards set down minimum wages and working conditions for particular types of jobs. An employer is legally obliged to abide by these.

2. Employers are also obliged to give all workers various forms of leave. They must allow an employee to have four weeks paid holidays per year. Public holidays should also be given as paid leave if the employee normally works that day.

3. Most employers grant long service leave after a minimum of ten years in a job. Employers are also responsible to contribute to an employees superannuation fund, and to remit income tax deductions.

4. Employers are bound by industrial awards when terminating employment. Notice must be given unless there is misconduct by the employee.

5. Employers must allow employees the right to belong to a union.

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RESOURCE SHEET 2

Language activity

Rights and Responsibilities of Employers and Employees

In your own words, complete the following sentences, based on your understanding of the article.

1. While there are many rights in the workplace, there are also ____________________

2. An employee can be dismissed if ____________________

3. Employees do not have to follow their employer's instructions if ____________________

4. An employee can be sued for damages by his/her employer if ____________________

5. Giving honest and faithful service is an employee's ____________________

6. If an employee invents something during working hours then he or she ____________________

7. Minimum wages and working conditions for particular types of jobs are set down by ____________________

8. Employers must pay at least ____________________

9. Giving their employees various forms of leave is another ____________________

10. Employers are obliged to give notice unless ____________________

11. Belonging to a union is ____________________

RESOURCE SHEET 3

Reading

Focus question

How have work practices changed over the years?

WHO WANTS THE GOOD OLD DAYS BACK?

(i) Godliness, cleanliness and punctuality are the necessities of a good business.

(ii) On the recommendation of the Governor of this Colony, this firm has reduced the hours of work, and the Clerical Staff will now only have to be present between the hours of 7 a.m. and 6p.m. on week days. The Sabbath is for Worship, but should any Man-of-War or other vessel require victualling, the Clerical Staff will work on the Sabbath.

(iii) Daily prayers will be held each morning in the Main Office. The Clerical Staff will be present.

(iv) Clothing must be of a sober nature. The Clerical Staff will not disport themselves in raiment of bright colours, nor will they wear hose unless in good repair.

(v) Overshoes and top-coats may not be worn in the Office but neck Scarves and head wear may be worn in inclement weather.

(vi) A stove is provided for the benefit of the Clerical Staff. Coal and wood must be kept in the locker. It is recommended that each member of the Clerical Staff bring 4 pounds of coal each day during cold weather.

(vii) No member of the Clerical Staff may leave the room without the permission of Mr Ryder. The calls of nature are permitted and the Clerical Staff may use the garden below the second gate. This area must be kept in good order.

(viii) No talking is allowed during business hours.

(ix) The craving for tobacco, wines or spirits is a human weakness and, as such, forbidden to all members of the Clerical Staff.

(x) Now that the hours of business have been drastically reduced, the partaking of food is allowed between 11.30 a.m. and noon, but work will not on any account cease.

(xi) Members of the Clerical Staff will provide theirown pens. A new sharpener is available on application to Mr Ryder.

(xii) Mr Ryder will nominate a Senior Clerk to be responsible for the cleanliness of the Main Office and the Private Office, and all boys and juniors will report to him 40 minutes before Prayers, and will remain after closing for similar work. Brushes, brooms scrubbers and soap will be provided by the owners.

(xiii) The new increased weekly wages are as hereunder detailed:

Junior Boys to 11 — 1.4d
Boys to 14 years — 2.1d
Juniors — 4.8d
Junior Clerks — 8.7d
Clerks — 10.6d
Senior Clerks after 15 years with owners — 21.1d

The owners hereby recognise the generosity of the new labour laws, but will expect a great rise in output of work to compensate for these near-Utopian conditions.

Magpies Journal, No. 2, 1974
reprinted in Parker & Clarke Commerce 3

REOURCE SHEET 4

Terms Relating to Earning An Income

Public Holidays	Employees must be paid for all public holidays.
Maternity Leave	Women are entitled to 12 months off without pay for the birth of a child.
Sick Pay	Employers are entitled to five days sick pay per year (some awards give more days).
Accumulative Sick Pay	If this is the award, employees can carry forward unused days to further years.
Holiday Pay	All employees are entitled to at least three weeks holidays a year on full pay.
Holiday Pay Loading	Employers receive an extra 17% loading on up to four weeks holiday pay per year.
Workers compensation	Employees are entitled to a weekly amount or a lump sum if they have been injured at work or going to and from work, or if they contact a disease caused by the workplace.
Long Service Leave	Employees are entitled to at least three months paid leave after working with 1 employer for 15 years (10 years in some awards).
Superannuation	An employee may be able to join a superannuation scheme, if so she contributes an amount each week and so does the employer. When she retires she receives either a lump sum or a guaranteed weekly income forever.
Special leave	An employee may be entitled to have a few days off per year for certain purposes eg a special sporting event, moving house or the funeral of a relative (often called bereavement leave).
Overtime rates	If an employee works more than the normal hours per day or per week she is paid time-and-a-half or double-time.
Severance Pay	Where an employee has been employed for a number of years and is retrenched she may be paid a large sum of money based on the number of years worked.
Redundant	Where machinery replaces employees, the people put off work are said to be made redundant.
Price Rates	The employee is paid according to the quantity she produces each day.

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RESOURCE SHEET 4 continued

Bonus	On occasions, a firm will pay employees something extra eg an extra week's salary if the firm makes a good profit.
Concession	An employee is paid a percentage of sales eg they receive their weekly salary plus 2% of goods sold or they only get paid on commission eg Real Estate.
Over award payments	An employer sometimes offers to pay employees more than the award wage for the job.
Aptitude Test	A special test to see if a potential employee is suitable for a particular job.
Moonlighting	An employee takes on an additional job in the evenings after working during the day in her main job.
Penalty Rates	Some employees are entitled to be paid more because of special or unpleasant conditions.
Awards	A written set of rules relating to employees doing a particular type or work eg the Clerks award, the Teachers award, the Plumbers award.
Shift Work	This means employees are rostered for different time periods eg 8am to 5pm, 4.30 am to 1.30 pm.

RESOURCE SHEET 5

Model explanation

Account for the Growth of the Trade Union Movement

A sweeping economic revolution began in England during the 18th century. This radically changed the workplace in Europe and later across the world.

The economic revolution began in agriculture as scientific methods were applied to farming. Demand for farm workers declined as those displaced moved to the cities seeking employment.

At the same time scientific methods were creating a new form of industry, which was no longer based in homes. Large-scale production grew, making factories the common workplace for many.

Cities became overpopulated with large numbers seeking work, even women and young children. Living conditions in these times were typically poor, overcrowded and disease ridden. Competition for jobs was so fierce that the workers were forced to accept whatever they could find. In addition employers and governments firmly believed that they had the sole right to decide on wages and conditions in the workplace. With such an oversupply of labour, workers were exploited by employers. The trade union movement grew in reaction to this.

The rapid growth of cities through both migration and natural increase made organising trade unions easier. Factories often housed thousands of discontent workers under one roof. These increased numbers forced employers to recognise the bargaining power of workers in determining wages and conditions. This collective bargaining was often only effective through strike action. Employers were very reluctant to give up their power and the struggle was bitter.

RESOURCE SHEET 6

Model stages

Account for the Growth of the Trade Union Movement

Phenomenon	A sweeping economic revolution began in England during the 18th century. This radically changed the workplace in Europe and later across the world.
Explanation Sequence	The economic revolution began in agriculture as scientific methods were applied to farming. Demand for farm workers declined as those displaced moved to the cities seeking employment. At the same time scientific methods were creating a new form of industry, which was no longer based in homes. Large-scale production grew, making factories the common workplace for many. Cities became overpopulated with large numbers seeking work, even women and young children. Living conditions in these times were typically poor, overcrowded and disease ridden. Competition for jobs was so fierce that the workers were forced to accept whatever they could find. In addition employers and governments firmly believed that they had the sole right to decide on wages and conditions in the workplace. With such an oversupply of labour, workers were exploited by employers. The trade union movement grew in reaction to this.
Results	The rapid growth of cities through both migration and natural increase made organising trade unions easier. Factories often housed thousands of discontent workers under one roof. These increased numbers forced employers to recognise the bargaining power of workers in determining wages and conditions. This collective bargaining was often only effective through strike action. Employers were very reluctant to give up their power and the struggle was bitter.

RESOURCE SHEET 7

Teacher-led construction Version 1

How Have Unions Changed the Responsibilities of Employers?

Title	**How have unions changed the responsibilities of employers?**
Phenomenon	I found out that unions have taken power away from the bosses and given it to the workers. This began in Britain.
Explanation Sequence	Before then bosses were totally in charge at work but unions made them be able to be questioned about what they did.
	Things changed since workers started to get organised and conditions and pay rates have changed too.
	Before 1856 workers worked 60 hours/week with no overtime. From 1850s unions tried for shorter working hours and in 1856 a 48-hour week for building workers came in.
	In the 20th century unions kept this up. Bosses had to pay sick leave, long service leave etc so they had to provide for the workers' health and well being.
	Unions have been pushing for equal pay for women since 1949 because before that women earned 45% of men's wages. This came in in 1972.
Results	Unions have made bosses give limited working hours, leave, equal pay etc.

RESOURCE SHEET 8

Teacher-led construction Version 2

How Have Unions Changed the Responsibilities of Employers?

There has been a shift in power away from the employers towards employees due to union activity. This trend was a transplant of the union movement from Britain to Australia.

In the nineteenth century employers wielded tremendous power in the workplace. Unions have forced employers to have some form of accountability.

Since labour began to organise, responsibilities of employers have changed in both conditions and rates of pay.

Before 1856 it was common for employees to work a 60-hour week. There was no concept of overtime. In the latter half of the nineteenth century unions began campaigning for shorter working hours. The success of 1856 with the introduction of a 48-hour week for building workers meant that employers had limits on how many hours people worked.

In the twentieth century the campaign to reduce working hours continued. At the same time employers were forced to grant various types of paid leave as sick leave, annual leave, long service leave. Employers were thus forced to make provisions for the employees health and well being.

Since 1949 unions have sought equal pay for women. Before 1949 women earned 45% of a male's wage. Employers became responsible for providing equal pay for equal work in 1972.

Through union activity, the modern employer is responsible for providing limited working hours, many forms of leave and equal pay for equal work.

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RESOURCE SHEET 9

Reading

A Brief History of Unions in Australia

Event	Australian trade unions date from the very rapid rise in the population which took place after the gold rushes in the 1850s. Trade unions work on the principle that "unity is strength".
Before 1856	Many workers worked 60 hour weeks [no overtime].
1856	48 hour week for building workers.
1873	48 hour week achieved after a series of strikes by goldminers, government labourers, sawmillers etc.
1920	44 hour week for Timber Workers Union.
1922	Sick leave is included in some awards.
1929	44 hour week decision reversed. Depression that followed stopped strikes causing a reversal of this decision.
1938	44 hour week for most Australian workers.
1941	After a strong union campaign, 1 week's annual leave was granted to Australian workforce. Sick leave of 2 days for most workers.
1946	Annual leave extended to 2 weeks.
1948	40 hour week. Sick leave 5 days.
1949	Prior to this date women's wage 54% of male's wage rate. In 1949 75% of male's wage rate.
1953	Long Service leave — 13 weeks after 20 years service.
1963	Most workers receive 3 weeks annual leave.
1970	Waterside Workers Federation strike for 4 weeks annual leave plus an extra week's pay for spending money. Victorious. 4 weeks annual leave is now widespread.
1972	Equal pay for work of equal value.
1979	Unpaid maternity leave introduced. Unpaid leave for 6 weeks to 1 year with job security.

Source: Marie Turnbull
Christian Community Schools Ltd

RESOURCE SHEET 10

Aural Cloze

A Brief History of Unions in Australia

Event Australian trade unions date from the very rapid rise in the population which took place after the Gold Rushes in the 1850s.

Trade unions worked on the principle that "........................".

Before 1856 Many workers worked .... [not........................].

1856 48 hour week for .... workers.

...... 48 hour week .... after a series of strikes by goldminers, government ...., sawmillers etc.

1920 44 hour week for .... Workers Union.

1922 .... is included in some awards.

1929 44 hour week decision .... Depression that followed stopped strikes causing a reversal of this decision.

...... 44 hour week for .... Australian workers.

1941 After a strong union ...., 1 week's annual .... was granted to Australian workforce. .... of 2 days for most workers.

1946. Annual leave .... to 2 weeks.

1948 40 hour week. Sick leave........................

1949 .... to this date women's wage .... of male's wage rate. In 1949 75% of male's wage rate.

1953 .... leave — 13 weeks after 20 years service.

1963 Most workers receive 3 weeks annual leave.

1970 Waterside Workers Federation strike for 4 weeks annual leave plus an extra week's pay for .... Victorious. 4 weeks annual leave is now ....

1972 Equal pay for work of ....

1979 Unpaid .... leave introduced. Unpaid leave for 6 weeks to 1 year with ....

Source: Marie Turnbull
Christian Community Schools Ltd

RESOURCE SHEET 11

Reading

Workers, Unions and Politics

Free settlers came to the colonies in increasing numbers from the 1820s. They brought with them the belief held by many in Britain and Europe at the time that working men in a particular trade or occupation should band together to protect their interests. They could then press for uniform wages — the same pay for the same task to every worker — and could insist on certain working conditions. They could make their union a Friendly Society to which members contributed money and from which they could draw money and other benefits in times of distress or on the death of a wage earner in the family. Many of the early colonial unions took this form. In 1830, for example, shipwrights formed the Shipwrights' United Friendly Society, while the following year boatbuilders formed the Boatbuilders' Benefit Society. Between 1833 and 1848 a total of eighteen unions of workers existed at various times in Sydney. They included associations of tailors, bakers, cabinet-makers and upholsterers, carpenters, plumbers, bootmakers and shoemakers, each with between twenty and thirty active members.

By 1829 the colony had had its first successful strike. The printers on W.C. Wentworth's newspaper, *The Australian,* went on strike for better wages and conditions — and got them. But those in authority had no intention of allowing working people to dictate to their employers. Under the Masters and Servants Act, passed in 1828, any employee who refused to work or who neglected his work could be brought before a magistrate. If he was convicted, he could be sent to prison for up three months. If a servant lost or destroyed his master's property, he was made to pay double its value or was sent to gaol for from one to six months' and any contract between them was cancelled.

The Act remained for years a constant source of irritation to both masters and servants. The employers thought it was too lenient, while the workers believed it gave them no protection against an unjust master and that its penalties were too severe. In 1837 *The Sydney Gazette* commented that the law was frequently being used by masters against their free servants. The paper stated that a single hour's unpermitted absence made a servant liable to imprisonment, or to work on the treadmill, a dreadful device used for the punishment of the worst convicts. That free men should be treated in this way caused labourers to say that some employers were 'worse than Egyptian task masters'.

In 1840 a proposal was put before the Legislative Council of New South Wales to extend the operation of the Masters and Servants Act beyond the original limits of settlement (known as the Nineteen Counties) around Sydney. An influential group of employers, the squatters, had pushed beyond these limits, and wanted to able to control the workers on their properties. When this proposal was made public, 2856 Sydney workers petitioned the Council on 29 September 1840 to lighten some of the provisions of the Act: '... some of its provisions will be found too harsh and stringent will operate partially;.... employers will have it in their power to oppress and defraud their workmen on undefined charges of misbehaviour or misdemeanour...'.

They has some success. Penalties for breach of contract were reduced, and a provision was added that no woman should be imprisoned for breach of contract. This was the first really effective action of working people organised for a common goal in Australia.

by Roslyn Russell, Bay Books, 1984

RESOURCE SHEET 12

◯ = emotive words

Workers, Unions and Politics

Free settlers came to the colonies in increasing numbers from the 1820s. They brought with them the belief held by many in Britain and Europe at the time that working men in a particular trade or occupation should band together to protect their interests. They could then press for uniform wages — the same pay for the same task to every worker — and could insist on certain working conditions. They could make their union a Friendly Society to which members contributed money and from which they could draw money and other benefits in times of distress or on the death of a wage earner in the family. Many of the early colonial unions took this form. In 1830, for example, shipwrights formed the Shipwrights' United Friendly Society, while the following year boatbuilders formed the Boatbuilders' Benefit Society. Between 1833 and 1848 a total of eighteen unions of workers existed at various times in Sydney. They included associations of tailors, bakers, cabinet-makers and upholsterers, carpenters, plumbers, bootmakers and shoemakers, each with between twenty and thirty active members.

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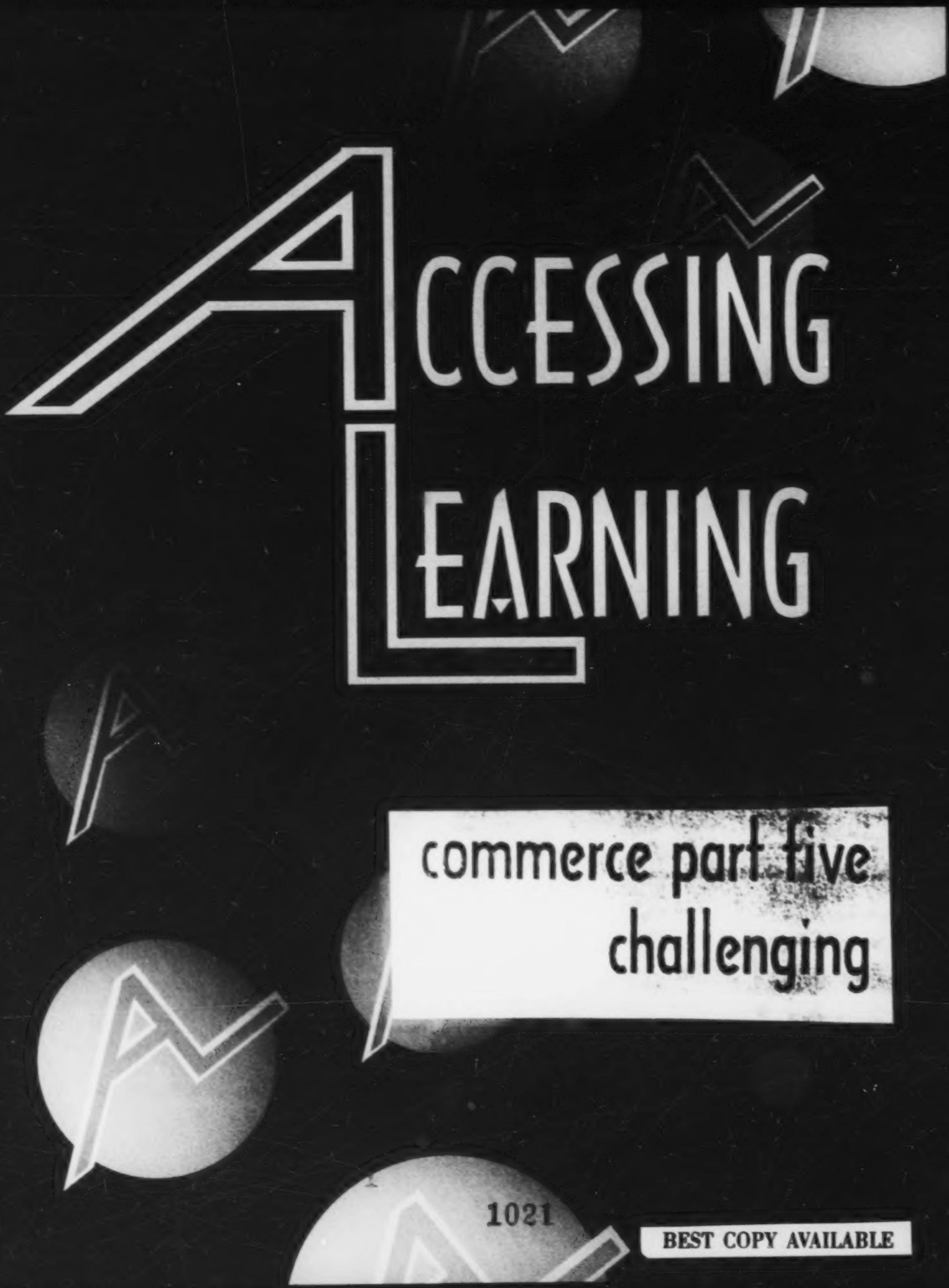

ACCESSING LEARNING

commerce part five challenging

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

PART FIVE OVERVIEW - CHALLENGING

Students explore issues of technological change in relation to unemployment.

	Content and Tasks	**Assessment**
Preparing the Context	Discussion of changes in employment in Australia in the last decade	Informal assessment of students' understanding
Developing the Context	Discussion and jigsaw of the following readings: *Unfair Pay: Women Urged to Fight back* *Dole Queue Degrees Rise* *Transnational Corporations* *Reworking the future*	Informal assessment of the students' ability to extract the main idea from a reading and share them so that an overall view of the topic can be developed. Self-assessment of ability to contribute to discussion and take effective notes
Modelling	Deconstruction of a model argument: *The Way of the Future*	Informal assessment of students' ability to break text into stages, identify the function each stage fulfils and recognise genre-appropriate language
Teacher-led Construction	Preparation of a discussion essay on the topic 'New technology has both good and bad effects in the workplace'	Informal assessment of students' ability to make use of appropriate text stages and language choices for the content
Developing the Content	Further reading: *The structure of the labour force* and language activity on noun groups	Informal assessment of the students' understanding of content in the reading and use of noun groups
Student-led Construction	Students write discussion essays on the topic 'The Australian workplace is rapidly changing'.	Formal assessment of the students' ability to apply knowledge of content to a successful discussion essay, based on criteria established during the unit.
Resource Sheets	Activity sheets and resource sheets are grouped as Resource Sheets at the end of each Part. They are referred to by number in the text.	

PART FIVE - CHALLENGING

PREPARING THE CONTEXT

The teacher leads a general discussion of the following questions:

- How has Australian employment changed in the last decade?
- Why do you think this has happened?

DEVELOPING THE CONTEXT

The teacher introduces issues such as:

Technology:	the know-how and creative process that may assist people to utilise tools, resources and systems to solve problems and enhance control over the natural and built environment in an endeavour to improve the human condition
Automation:	automatic handling of production by machinery using more machinery than labour, for example robots performing many tasks on car assembly lines
Computerisation:	computers taking a controlling role in the production process, for example a computer is programmed to operate a machine such as a robot. Computers are used extensively in tasks such as: 1. clerical work/accounting 2. recording figures and statistics 3. calculating pay slips 4. education 5. maintaining records, for example criminal and tax file records.
Training:	multi-skilling (mobility), continuous education.

Arrange for students to read the articles in Resource Sheets 1 – 3 and any others relevant to the topic, for information to support a final discussion essay.

Reworking the Future is a fourth reading. Ask all students to read the whole text, Resource Sheet 4, and discuss the fourth question, or use Resource Sheets 4A – E to run it as a group jigsaw reading.

MODELLING

The teacher puts on OHT the model argument, Resource Sheet 5, *The way for the future ...* then demonstrates the stages in the model (Resource Sheet 6).

Ask students to underline all connectives and separate:

- all that relate to time (temporal connectives)
- all that relate to adding information (additive connectives); and
- all that relate to showing cause and effect (causative connectives).

An example is provided below.

Temporal	**Additive**	**Causative**
Firstly	for example	since
Finally	such as	therefore
	also	

TEACHER-LED CONSTRUCTION

Teacher and students work on the discussion essay topic: 'New technology has both good and bad effects in the workplace'.

This essay requires the teacher to point out to students that a discussion essay has different staging from an argument essay, although the language features are similar. Emphasise the two-sided nature of discussion genre by explicitly highlighting evidence **for** and evidence **against** the topic.

Using an OHT show students the alternative ways of organising their information, that is, all points **for** followed by all points **against**, or **for** and **against** points alternately as shown in the Video 3: Geography.

Version 1 Correct staging	becomes	**Version 2** Correct staging and appropriate language
There are a lot of things to think about		There are many factors to consider
When we discuss how new technology affected the workplace		When discussing the effects of new technology
Things like what has changed...		Issues such as effects in...

See Resource Sheet 7 and 8 for extended examples of Versions 1 and 2.

DEVELOPING THE CONTEXT

Students undertake a further reading on the effects of computers on the structure of the labour force, Resource Sheet 9, and examine the way meaning is embedded in noun groups in it. Ask students to underline four noun groups in the passage and unpack them.

The relative percentages of the labour force in the basic industry groups.

becomes

'The percentage of people who are the workers in the groups of industry which are the basic ones is relative to them (those basic industry groups).'

Consider with students the effects of complex or long noun groups in the writing.

STUDENT-LED CONSTRUCTION

Students write discussion essays on the topic: 'The Australian workplace is rapidly changing'.

RESOURCE SHEET 1

Reading

Focus question: What is the main issue in this article?

Discussion: Do you think the plight of women has changed with new technology?

Unfair Pay: Women Urged to Fight Back

by Pilita Clark and Brad Norington

Women workers should mount a test case under the Sex Discrimination Act to redress the "shocking" imbalance between male and female earnings.

The recommendation is one of 12 in a report issued yesterday by the Minister for Industrial Relations, Senator Cook.

The report, "Pay Equity for Women in Australia", was commissioned by the National Women's Consultative Council, a Government-appointed group of major women's organisations and individuals.

It found that women earned less than men in all categories of earnings (such as minimum award and ordinary time); all components of earnings (including overtime and over award payments; all major occupational groupings; most benefit categories such as assisted mortgage payments and life insurance) and allowances.

"It shocks us to see that women are behind on all possible fronts of remuneration," the report said. "Analysis of the earnings of males and females reveals that pay equity is a myth."

The gaps between male and female earnings varied widely between occupations. For instance, average weekly total earnings of full-time adult male registered nurses was $560, compared with $539 for their female counterparts. But for sales assistants the figure was $509 for men compared with $329 for women.

The report said there were a number of reasons, some structural and other discriminatory, causing the big discrepancies.

On the structural side, women suffered because Australia has one of the most sex-segregated workforces in the OECD group of countries, which means that women do not do the same work as men.

Women are often confined to occupations and industries such as the textile, clothing and footwear, finance and business sectors, which pay the lowest rates of average weekly wages.

Women also suffer from institutional factors such as lower access to promotion and training; the higher incidence of part-time and casual work done by women; the higher unionisation and militancy among traditionally male occupations and the lower availability of — and access to — shift work and overtime for women.

For instance, women earn less than a quarter of the overtime earnings of men; less than 20 per cent of the payment-by-results earnings of men and less than half of their male counterparts.

The main recommendation of the report is that each industry should develop its own strategy to improve pay equality for women.

The report recommends several ways of achieving this, including:

- Mounting a case under the Sex Discrimination Act
- Extending the coverage of supplementary payments by targeting low-paid awards.
- Mounting more equal-pay cases, such as the successful ones for nurses and therapists.
- Improving women's access to training and their skills.

Senator Cook said yesterday he believed that adequate mechanisms lay within the wage system for women to achieve equal pay. However, much effort would have to be spent in changing the attitudes of employers.

The executive director of the NSW Retail Traders' Association, Mr Bruce Bevan, said he was "very surprised" by the disparity. "Award rates for men and women are exactly the same" He said that as the difference was so large it appeared casual and part-time employment had been included.

The Sydney Morning Herald
9 August, 1990

RESOURCE SHEET 2

Reading

Focus question: What is the main issue in this article?

Discussion: How do you think this could relate to technology?

Dole Queue Degrees Rise

by Steve Burrell

CANBERRA: More people are gaining higher education qualifications — but they also form a higher proportion of those out of work than five years ago, according to Bureau of Statistics figures released yesterday.

The figures show that there are almost a million more people in the workforce with university degrees, college degrees and diplomas, trade certificates and apprenticeships than in 1982.

The proportion of the population over 15 years of age with post-secondary qualifications has risen steadily from 23.9 per cent in 1982 to 36.6 per cent in 1987.

But there are proportionately more of these qualified people unemployed, with post-school qualifications held by 25.8 per cent of those on the dole in 1987 compared to 23.9 per cent five years ago.

The proportion has been steady over the past two years, however, and is well down on the peak of 28.3 per cent in 1983 in the aftermath of the recessions.

The growing numbers of those with higher qualifications has also well outstripped their representation on the dole queues, with around 65,000 more unemployed in 1987 than in 1982, compared with the increase of those with post secondary training of 995,000 over the period.

The figures show the acquisition of qualifications has varied markedly between different age groups and between the sexes. For men in the 45 to 54 age group, the proportion with post-school qualification has risen 8.8 percentage points, from 43.1 per cent in 1982 to 51.9 per cent last year.

For the 25 to 34 age group, however the rise was only 1.8 points from 51.7 per cent in 1982 to 53.5 per cent in 1987.

This shows that older workers, who had fewer educational opportunities early in their lives, are now closing the qualifications gap on the younger generation as their jobs demand greater skills.

Women from both age groups showed increases of 6.1 percentage points, with the proportion of those in the 45 to 54 age group rising to 30.8 per cent and women in the 25 to 34 age bracket to 43.8 per cent.

The Sydney Morning Herald, 1 March 1988

RESOURCE SHEET 3

Reading

Focus questions: What are transnational corporations? How do they affect Australia?

Transnational Corporations

The entry of transnational corporations has also been slammed for the high level of unemployment in Australia. A transnational corporation is a business organisation that has operations in more than one country.

Many American, Japanese, English and West German transnational corporations have made substantial investments in Australia in agricultural, manufacturing, mining and service industries.

Company names such as Kodak, Union Carbide, Toyota, General Motors and ICI are well known to most Australians. Such corporations have their head offices in cities like London, Tokyo, Frankfurt and New York and conduct activities in countries throughout the world.

The map shows the countries in which Unilever, the world's largest food company, either partially or wholly owns operating companies. This joint British/Dutch transnational owns companies throughout the world which produce a wide range of products. In Australia, Unilever's main subsidiary companies include Streets, Bushels, Sea Kist, John West and Rosella.

In 1975–76, eighty of the two hundred largest companies in Australia were controlled by foreign-owned transnational corporations. These corporation operated 845 establishments in Australia and employed 211 560 people.

People who favour investment in Australia by transnational corporations claim that such companies bring:

(a) investment funds
(b) advanced technology and training for workers
(c) revenue for state and federal governments in the form of taxes.
(d) employment stimulus for the economy through the development of associated industries in Australia.

Many people have expressed concern at the level of investment by transnational corporations and have argued that the actions of such corporation have contributed to the high levels of unemployment experienced in Australia.

The critics of such investment claim that the entry of transnational corporations into Australia has led to a reduction in the number of job opportunities because transnational corporations:

(a) have access to substantial overseas funds that enable them to take over their Australian competitors and close down their operations.
(b) direct their Australian profits overseas rather than reinvesting in new plant and machinery.
(c) tend to locate their operation in places that offer the cheapest costs of production.

As such, transnational corporations are more prepared than Australian owned companies to close down their Australian operations and relocate them to lower-cost locations in other countries.

In recent years, several Australian-based corporations, such as BHP, Bond Corporation and Elders IXL have adopted similar company structures to the many foreign based transnationals that operate in Australia. Although their head offices are still based in Australia, BHP, Bond Corporation and Elders IXL have substantial operations in foreign countries including the USA, Brazil, Asia, South Africa and the United Kingdom.

RESOURCE SHEET 4

Reading

Focus question: What alternatives are available to unions to reduce the decline in unemployment due to technology?

Reworking the future

by John Tanner

Computerisation can both reduce the number of jobs and promote dull and repetitive work. But it doesn't have to be like this. There are alternatives which the trade unions will have to examine if they are to survive into the twenty-first century.

New technology may be dramatically reducing costs — and speeding up communication. But people are losing their jobs: the stock-controller who used to count the goods on the supermarket shelf; the switchboard operator who handled your long-distance call; the factory worker who bolted your car together.

In Britain, for example, there have been massive job losses in almost every sector in recent years; between 1980 and 1982 one job in five disappeared in engineering, the motor vehicle industry and textiles and clothing. Only insurance, banking and finance saw an increase in employment, by just half of one per cent.

Now there is a handful of highly-skilled— usually white male — employees who program or control the machines, who are well paid and do interesting and creative work. But alongside these is an even greater number of de-skilled, often black and female employees engaged in boring and repetitive work for low wages.

Management did not introduce new technology primarily to put people out of work. The most pressing aim was usually to cut costs and operate as efficiently as possible. At a time of recession only those who can cut costs to the bone will survive. But new technology has been used as a way of imposing greater control. If the machinery can be handled by relatively unskilled labour such workers are very easily replaced and can do little to disrupt production if they wish to protest. As long ago as 1973 the Washington Post introduced computerised typesetting without a union agreement. There was a strike and just 25 managers were able to operate the system, taking over the work of as many as 125 typesetters. By the end of the year management had broken the union, taken away many benefits and made large numbers of high skilled print workers redundant.

A growing number of workers and trade unionist now believe that it is possible to take more positive action that ensures that the technology works for the people rather than the other way around.

Lathe operation has been one example of both the problem and the opportunity. This does involve skill on the part of the operator but there is also a lot of repetitive manual work. There are two approaches to computerising lathe operation. The first involves transferring the skill of the operator to a computer program which will do virtually the whole job. Less skilled operators simply feed a tape into a machine and by choosing from a limited number of options can produce high quality products.

But at the University of Manchester Institute of Science and Technology Professor Rosenbrok has shown that there is another approach. He has designed a computer-aided lathe in which the operator can still choose how to direct his equipment using a visual display. In other words while the computer does the heavy and repetitive work, the human being still contributes the creativity.

Everywhere the story seems the same. New technology means a loss of jobs, a process of de-skilling and greater control by management. But thankfully there are some instances where new technology has come much closer to the promise of liberation from toil and more leisure for workers.

(*New Internationalist,* August 1985, No 162)

RESOURCE SHEET 4A

Jigsaw Introduction

Reworking the Future

by John Tanner

Computerisation can both reduce the number of jobs and promote dull and repetitive work. But it doesn't have to be like this. There are alternatives which the trade unions will have to examine if they are to survive into the twenty-first century.

New Internationalist

This is the beginning of an article from the August 1985 journal no. 162.
The article is written as an argument. As this is the first stage of an argument what do you expect it to tell you?

Read it. What do you predict the rest of the article will say?

The rest of the article has been cut up into sections, B, C and D, and a conclusion, E.

You will read either B or C or D with your group and then re-group to share your section with the others and to read the conclusion.

RESOURCE SHEET 4B

Jigsaw Part B

New technology may be dramatically reducing costs — and speeding up communication. But people are losing their jobs: the stock-controller who used to count the goods on the supermarket shelf; the switchboard operator who handled your long-distance call; the factory worker who bolted your car together.

In Britain, for example, there have been massive job losses in almost every sector in recent years; between 1980 and 1982 one job in five disappeared in engineering, the motor vehicle industry and textiles and clothing. Only insurance, banking and finance saw an increase in employment, by just half of one per cent.

Now there is a handful of highly-skilled — usually white male — employees who program or control the machines, who are well paid and do interesting and creative work. But alongside these is an even greater number of de-skilled, often black and female employees engaged in boring and repetitive work for low wages.

How has technology contributed to unemployment?

What jobs have been created by the introduction of technology?

RESOURCE SHEET 4C

Jigsa Part C

Management did not introduce new technology primarily to put people out of work. The most pressing aim was usually to cut costs and operate as efficiently as possible. At a time of recession only those who can cut costs to the bone will survive. But new technology has been used as a way of imposing greater control. If the machinery can be handled by relatively unskilled labour such workers are very easily replaced and can do little to disrupt production if they wish to protest. As long ago as 1973 the Washington Post introduced computerised typesetting without a union agreement. There was a strike and just 25 managers were able to operate the system, taking over the work of as many as 125 typesetters. By the end of the year management had broken the union, taken away many benefits and made large numbers of high skilled print workers redundant.

How has technology assisted management to gain greater control in the workplace?

RESOURCE SHEET 4D

Jigsaw Part D

A growing number of workers and trade unionist now believe that it is possible to take more positive action that ensures that the technology works for the people rather than the other way around.

Lathe operation has been one example of both the problem and the opportunity. This does involve skill on the part of the operator but there is also a lot of repetitive manual work. There are two approaches to computerising lathe operation. The first involves transferring the skill of the operator to a computer program which will do virtually the whole job. Less skilled operators simply feed a tape into a machine and by choosing from a limited number of options can produce high quality products.

But at the University of Manchester Institute of Science and Technology Professor Rosenbrok has shown that there is another approach. He has designed a computer-aided lathe in which the operator can still choose how to direct his equipment using a visual display. In other words while the computer does the heavy and repetitive work, the human being still contributes the creativity.

How can technology be used to work for people in the workplace?

RESOURCE SHEET 4E

Jigsaw Conclusion

Final task. Read the end of the article below. It pulls together the arguments in each different piece of the jigsaw. Can you identify where your piece of the jigsaw is used in the conclusion?

> "Everywhere the story seems the same. New technology means a loss of jobs, a process of de-skilling and greater control by management. But thankfully there are some instances where new technology has come much closer to the promise of liberation from toil and more leisure for workers."

Use information from each section of the article to answer this question together:

> "What alternatives are available to reduce the decline in unemployment due to technology?"

RESOURCE SHEET 5

Model Argument

The Way For The Future

Robots are the way for the future but they will never replace humans.

Firstly robots are able to perform a range of jobs that were previously done by workers. For example, robots are relieving people of dangerous jobs such as lifting heavy machine parts, unpleasant jobs such as spray-painting and boring jobs such as assembly work.

Robots also can work continuously for 24 hours a day without breaking for meals or rest. Also robots do not take holidays or sick leave or go on strike and they do not require payment for service.

Finally robots are easy to re-program to change jobs and they provide a standardised product since they are incapable of deviating from the work they are programmed to do.

Therefore robots offer many advantages to the workplace.

RESOURCE SHEET 6

Model Stages

The Way For The Future

Thesis	**Robots are the way for the future but they will never replace humans.**
Argument For	Firstly robots are able to perform a range of jobs that were previously done by workers. For example, robots are relieving people of dangerous jobs such as lifting heavy machine parts, unpleasant jobs such as spray-painting and boring jobs such as assembly work.
Argument For	Robots also can work continuously for 24 hours a day without breaking for meals or rest. Also robots do not take holidays or sick leave or go on strike and they do not require payment for service.
Argument For	Finally robots are easy to re-program to change jobs and they provide a standardised product since they are incapable of deviating from the work they are programmed to do.
Conclusion	Therefore robots offer many advantages to the workplace.

RESOURCE SHEET 7

Teacher-led construction Version 1

Because of the length of this discussion essay, only the introduction of a student version is given.

Thesis	New technology has both good and bad effects in the workplace. Discuss.
Preview of Issues	There are lots of things to think about when we discuss how new technology has affected the workplace. Things like what has changed because of automation and computerisation are talked about. .... etc ....

RESOURCE SHEET 8

Teacher-led construction Version 2

Thesis

New technology has both good and bad effects in the workplace. Discuss

Review of Issues

There are many factors to consider when discussing the effects of new technology in the workplace. Issues such as effects in the workplace, and the changes that have occurred as a result of automation and computerisation have to be addressed.

Argument Against

There are significant effects on the workplace in relation to unemployment. Loss of jobs is one of the greatest problems facing workers in Australia. This happens when firms use machines to do work that was once done by people. Assembly lines, computers, automatic telephone exchanges, even coffee-making machines and photocopiers, all allow more tasks to be done or more goods to be produced without using as many people. Workers have always feared technical change. During the Industrial revolution they smashed machines they thought would take their jobs. Today some unions strike over the use of computerised machinery. In 1979 and 1980 printers and journalists employed by Sydney newspapers held strikes over computers in the industry.

Argument For

There are however benefits to workers with the new technology such as workers being released from tedious and non technically demanding work such as collating materials, developing spreadsheets and assembling components.

The effect of automation is another key issue in the discussion about the good and bad effects of technology in the workplace.

Automation means the automatic handling of production by machinery. It uses more machinery and less human labour. Each worker can produce more goods with the aid of machines. Machines cost a lot but they help firms make more profit. Machines do not strike. They can be used twenty-four hours a day without being paid overtime. Nor are machines paid for holidays, long service leave, holiday loadings and so on. Some workers lose their jobs when machines are introduced but retrenched workers can often be re-trained for a new occupation when their old job is lost to mechanisation. It has happened this way in the past, but it does not seem to occur as much any more. Often, workers who have been replaced by machinery are unskilled and there are fewer unskilled jobs for them since machines do these jobs now.

There are more factories in Sydney now, but there are fewer workers in some manufacturing industries. For example, in paper, paper products and printing, 31 new factories were opened from 1974 to 1976. The number employed by these industries fell by 3216 workers. The main reason for a drop in the number of workers employed in manufacturing has been the greater use of automated machinery. Australian manufacturing needs to adapt to the change in demand for more 'high-tech' goods such as video recorders and computers. 'Simple' production such as farming and steel making is becoming less important and is employing fewer workers.

cont.

RESOURCE SHEET 8 (continued)

Computers are modern machines that store information, solve problems and do calculations based on the information at incredible speed. Computerisation is the use of computers in factories and offices. Automatic machines in factories can be linked to a computer which will start or stop the machinery at set times. Instead of people working the machines, computers work the machines. A computerised printing machine, for example, can be programmed (set) to print all the daily newspapers needed by one newspaper firm. Only one printer is needed to set the machine and watch over it.

Computers replace many workers. They make some trades redundant or unnecessary. The unions representing redundant workers often demand that the Government or the industry run retraining schemes to help the workers qualify for new jobs. Some unions hold strikes to try to stop computers being used in their industry.

At first only large business could afford computers. Computers were big and expensive and needed huge storage areas. Many of the new computers are small. They are much cheaper. Smaller firms can afford them. Nowadays minicomputers are used to control machinery in some industries that use assembly line methods and mass production. Computers have already taken the jobs of process recorders and tally clerks in the oil industry. People with other jobs on assembly lines fear that they too might be replaced by a computer.

Finally, although new occupations have been created by new technology they are fewer in number and highly specialised. These positions require select skills and long years of training. Many workers that are displaced by new technology are not suited to these new position and join the ranks of the long-term unemployed.

Conclusion

Thus although new technology does have good effects in the workplace the overall effect is negative on the workplace.

RESOURCE SHEET 9

Reading

Focus question: How have computers affected each of the sectors?

The Structure of the Labour Force

We can also classify the labour force according to industry, occupation and status.

Industries can be divided into:

- primary — where raw materials are produced;
- secondary — where these raw materials are manufactured or turned into finished goods; and
- tertiary — where services are provided.

Vast changes have occurred in the relative percentages of the labour force in these basic industry groups. In the past, the percentage of the labour force in primary and secondary industries was much higher than it is today. As a result of the introduction of modern farm machinery and more mechanised mining and forestry techniques, the percentage of workers in primary industry has declined quite significantly, even though more primary products are now produced than ever before. The percentage of manufacturing industries had remained the same until the last decade when the introduction of computer technology revolutionised the manufacturing sector both in Australia and worldwide. Large, complex computerised machines are now doing the work that factory workers once did. Production costs per unit are decreasing as more sophisticated computerised machinery is introduced. Robots, once an image of science fiction, are now a reality in modern factories. New car manufacturing plants are a good example of this trend.

All these new developments have had a marked effect on the structure of the labour force. While the percentage falls in primary and secondary industries are significant, there has been a marked increase in the percentage of the labour force in the tertiary or service industries. This trend is the result of the greater variety of services now available in our modern world.

A comparison of newspaper advertisements today with those of 30 or 40 years ago would demonstrate the vast array of services which are now available in our modern economy. The travel and entertainment industries are good examples of areas in which there are new opportunities for employment.

Even within the tertiary sector, there have been many changes as computers eliminate more and more of the repetitive and boring work. The most obvious examples of this trend are to be found in supermarkets, banking and airline reservation systems. Word processors are now replacing the old typewriters as they are quicker and more flexible. This has greatly reduced the need for typists, many of whom were, traditionally, female. While computers have eliminated a great number of jobs, the computer industry itself has created many opportunities for employment, especially in relation to computer services.

Thus the technological changes which are occurring in our modern world are having the effect of gradually eliminating unskilled work. The emphasis in the future is therefore going to be on skilled work. Even so, there are many skilled task which are now being done by modern machinery, so that in some cases skilled tradespeople too are in danger of losing their jobs. With complex machinery doing the work more cheaply, there is no need to train young people in these skills and so the latter may be 'lost' forever. This process is know as 'de-skilling'. For example, spray-painting is a highly skilled job, but today a computer- programmed robot can do the job just as well as a person, and at a lower cost. It will therefore be more difficult to train spray painters as they won't be in such high demand. The human skill of spray painting may therefore eventually be lost.

The changes occurring in the industrial structure are also reflected in changes in the occupation pattern of the labour force.

ACCESSING LEARNING

DESIGN & TECHNOLOGY

classroom sample unit

DESIGN & TECHNOLOGY

LANGUAGE AND LITERACY DEVELOPMENT IN KEY LEARNING AREAS

1041

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UNIT OVERVIEW

This unit of work for Year 7 attempts to address 1) the prescribed dimensions of resources, materials and skills in the personal domain, and 2) historical and cultural issues of carrying accessories.

TOPIC **Prescribed context**: Clothing and Accessories

PART ONE **Page 7**	*Describing*	Students establish a need, consider human impact issues, conduct a survey of needs and write a design proposal.
PART ONE-2 **Page 23**	*Describing*	Introduces the concepts of design considerations, criteria and constraints. Students write a report on design considerations for their own project.
PART TWO **Page 45**	*Instructing*	Investigates the processes involved in the manufacture of appropriate products.
PART THREE **Page 61**	*Challenging*	Students design a test for evaluating materials and evaluate and select materials to use in the carrying accessory.

UNIT OUTCOMES

KNOWLEDGE AND UNDERSTANDING

By the completion of this unit students should be able to:

- identify the written and oral communication methods appropriate to the carrying accessory design project—design brief and design folio
- design the properties and structures of materials used in the carrying accessory
- identify the range of appropriate tools and equipment available to undertake the designing and making of the carrying accessory.

VALUES AND ATTITUDES

By the completion of this unit students should be able to:

- value safe work practices and conditions
- display an appreciation of personal needs and the needs of others through effective design
- value the capabilities of self and others in the development of the carrying accessory
- strive to achieve success and quality in designing the carrying accessory
- recognise the aesthetic qualities of design; value technique, style and quality.

UNIT OUTCOMES

SKILLS

By the completion of this unit students should be able to:

- identify the requirements in the design project
- experiment with materials to determine suitability for the carrying accessory
- predict the possible consequences of making and using the carrying accessory
- record the progress of the carrying accessory, starting with the design considerations then stating the design brief
- prepare diagrams, sketches and or drawings for making the carrying accessories
- collect information about the needs of consumers for a carrying accessory
- make decisions which are appropriate to the carrying accessory
- select appropriate materials, tools and processes for the carrying accessory.

LANGUAGE

By the completion of this unit students should be able to:

- recognise and use appropriate text stages and language choices to write a design brief, construct a report
- recognise and practise the use of the following language resources:
  - definitions for technical terms
  - taxonomies of organising/clarifying information
  - thematisation to move students from personal to impersonal writing
  - reference words, lexical chains and connectives to sequence steps in a process and demonstrate logical relationships.

NATIONAL PROFILES: STUDIES OF SOCIETY AND ENVIRONMENT

DESIGN & TECHNOLOGY

Strand: Designing, Making and Appraising

Level

5.2: Creates and prepares design and production proposals that:
- include consideration of a range of options
- demonstrate consideration of functional, aesthetic, social and environmental issues
- use the graphics, conventions and technical languages associated with particular fields of technology.

6.2: Creates and prepares detailed design and production prosals that:
- show how the ideas have been developed
- justify the functional, aesthetic, social and environmental choices made
- use symbols, graphics and technical languages adapted to the needs of the audience

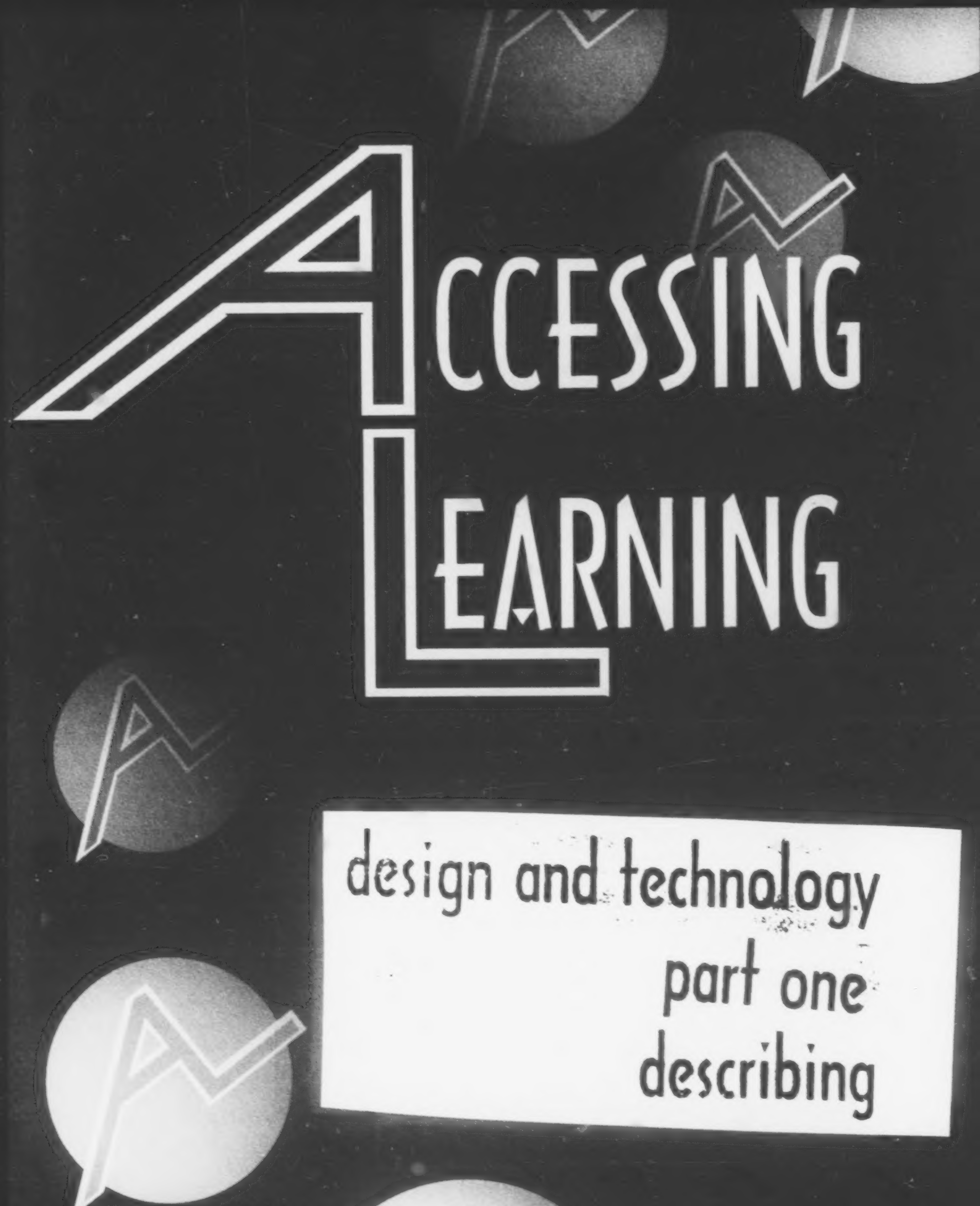
6.3: Organises, implements and adjusts production process involving:
- achievement of specified standards of quality and safety
- efficient use of time and resources
- collaboration with others on tasks carried out in specific sequences

6.4: Prepares and presents evaluation reports using information from impact studies, product testing, market research and from comparisons with similar work done by others.

Strand: Materials

Level

6.7: Matches the physical, chemical and aesthetic properties of materials to design, production and service requirements.



ACCESSING LEARNING

design and technology
part one
describing

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PART ONE OVERVIEW - DESCRIBING

Students establish the need for accessories to assist carrying, consider human impact issues, conduct a survey on identification of needs and write a design proposal.

	Content and Tasks	Assessment
Preparing the Context	Examines the concept of accessories for carrying goods and articles.	Informal assessment of students' understanding
Developing the Context	Looks at carrying accessories from the past, factors which influenced them, and ways of undertaking an analysis of contemporary needs.	
Embedded Cycle	*Study of different surveys and development of a survey of students' needs for carrying accessories.*	*Self assessment through use of the data*
Modelling	Teacher models conversion of survey information to design proposal.	Informal assessment of students' ability to imitate the model
Teacher-led Construction	Teacher and students practise design proposals.	Formal assessment of design proposals.
Resource Sheets	Activity sheets, overhead transparency masters and resource sheets are grouped as Resource Sheets at the end of each Part. They are referred to by number in the text.	

PART ONE - DESCRIBING

PREPARING THE CONTEXT

Through discussion the teacher establishes the concept of carrying.

Demonstrate the act of carrying different goods or articles such as books, eggs, fruit, firewood, kindling, treasures, money, keys, videos, shoes, pots, blankets, doonas, gardening tools or other locally selected items.

Ask questions such as:

- what am I doing? — carrying books;
- why am I doing it? — to move objects from one place to another;
- how could I make this task easier or improve on it? — put them all in one accessory.

The students respond with words such as *bag, box, container*. Teacher introduces the term ***accessory***.

The teacher asks the purpose of an accessory. Students may refer to a dictionary and find such purposes as 'to hold', 'to carry', 'to protect', 'to decorate'.

You may elicit some examples of people in history using accessories to carry goods, for example Ned Kelly carrying a bag of money, or Caroline Chisholm carrying a case of medical supplies to immigrant girls in the outback.

Have the students establish that an accessory solves a problem or meets a need.

DEVELOPING THE CONTEXT

Find illustrations of how goods were carried in earlier times. Students view these and undertake the following tasks:

Student Task

How did people carry goods in the past?

1. Look for a product in which a famous or infamous person in history (child, woman or man) might have carried belongings or treasures.

2. Make a large poster. Draw the carrier and the product and answer the questions in words or pictures.

   (a) Who was the carrier?
   (b) Why do we remember the carrier?
   (c) What was carried in the product?
   (d) How was it carried?
   (e) What size and shape was it?
   (f) What materials were used to make it?
   (g) What were the colour and patterns of the product?
   (h) How were the pieces joined?
   (i) How did the product close?
   (j) Was there a handle?

3. Write a paragraph about the technology used to make the material. Is the product still used today?

4. Was the technology environmentally friendly and were the resources renewable? Will it be used in 3001?

The teacher may choose to do more detailed work on the historical aspects of carrying. This would need to be done as an embedded cycle since research skills would need to be taught and the outcome would be a type of report.

Having established an historical and cultural context the teacher now applies the process to contemporary issues.

In this section the teacher establishes the need to use an accessory to carry goods by outlining each of the following situations.

- My grandmother finds shopping unpleasant when her bag is heavy. What is her need?

- On my way home my school backpack fell apart. I didn't like it anyway. What is my need?

- My sporting gear needs to be protected. What is my need?

- My little sister likes to take her toy cars to school and not get them muddled up. What is her need?

- I am the local mail deliverer. The mail is very important and must arrive safely. What is my need?

- My cousin enjoys ethnic dancing lessons. She has to carry her costume on public transport to get there. What is her need?

How can we find out more about people's needs?

The teacher establishes a range of ways individuals' needs can be determined, for example interviews, observation, surveys. This is called a **needs analysis**. You could carry out an investigation to see how many people are affected by a problem and what their needs are. This will give information to help analyse the problem, get a better picture of what is needed and provide some clear targets to work towards.

The teacher then leads students into developing a survey in order to determine individuals' needs. To do this we move into an embedded cycle and teach the students about surveys.

EMBEDDED CYCLE — SURVEYS

Preparing the Context

Focus questions

What surveys have you seen or participated in?

Possible answers: phone surveys, shopping centre surveys, door-to-door surveys, census, surveys in other subject areas, television and radio ratings (television Logies, pop music ratings).

What is a survey? What does it look like?

Possible answers: A series of questions or statements which require a true/false answer or sentence; multiple choice; graded responses 1–5.

Why do people do surveys?

Possible answers: To find certain kinds of information to be used for different purposes, eg product use, magazines purchased, television programmes watched. To identify target audiences, eg age range for advertising. To identify where changes need to be made.

Developing the Context

The teacher establishes the purpose of the survey, ie to establish needs for carrying goods. Hand out a range of surveys with different formats (television viewing patterns, product use surveys), and ask students to determine the following:

1. What is the purpose of the survey? (title and information)
2. Who is the target group?
3. What information is the person trying to find out?
4. How do you find out this information? (personal questions and instructions)
5. What did you notice about the format of the surveys?

Modelling

Resource Sheets 1 and 1A provide a model Meal Survey and illustrate the stages of a survey.

Teacher-led Construction

Together, the teacher and students jointly construct a survey that identifies needs for carrying goods. (A sample is provided, Resource Sheet 2. You may use this or choose another format.)

Using Resource Sheet 2, ask students to identify categories of information such as:

- establishing target audience/respondents
- description of goods, eg weight, size, shape
- occasions when goods are carried
- problems encountered when carrying goods
- effects on lifestyle.

With students, fill in the blank proforma, Resource Sheet 2A.

In Resource Sheets 3 and 3A the columns *Rebecca* and *Geoffrey* have two versions:

Version 1 contains what the students' initial responses might be.

Version 2 demonstrates what a teacher-led reworked version would look like.

Student-led Construction

Students use the same or similar format and questions to fill out a survey for themselves and ask three members of their family to answer the questions about their needs.

The teacher now moves back to the main cycle and continues with the next stage, Modelling.

MODELLING

Teacher takes one completed column from the teacher-led survey (eg *Geoffrey*), and models for students how the results will be translated into a design proposal.

Design Proposal

Geoffrey needs a carrying accessory to transport a portable telephone.

TEACHER-LED CONSTRUCTION

Teacher and students together construct a design proposal for one other column (eg *Robert*).

STUDENT-LED CONSTRUCTION

Students, using their own survey, analyse results, select one column (ie one member of the family) and write a design proposal for their own product.

By the end of this section the features below need to have been covered by the teacher:

- consumer and needs (who will buy or use the product and what they will require);
- accessory (anything added or attached for convenience);
- function (what the product is used for and how it works);
- form (what the product looks like, feels like);
- aesthetic (whether a consumer would like to carry it and whether the product is pleasing);
- decorative (the decoration of the product, eg colour, pattern).

RESOURCE SHEET 1: MODEL SURVEY

Meal Survey

Some elderly people find it difficult to prepare adequate meals for themselves. The following survey by the Care for the Elderly group aims to ask elderly people about their meal arrangements. The results will be used in a submission for continued funding by the local Council for their 'Meals at Home' program.

Questionnaire

Please tick the boxes for your answers. More than one box may be ticked if necessary:

Do you have an oven? ☐ gas ☐ electric ☐ microwave ☐ other ☐ no

How do you store food? ☐ cupboard ☐ fridge ☐ freezer ☐ other

Do you cook for any of the following meals?

☐ breakfast ☐ morning tea ☐ lunch ☐ tea ☐ dinner ☐ supper ☐ snacks

Do you enjoy cooking?	Yes ☐	No ☐
Do you regularly use pre-cooked foods?	Yes ☐	No ☐
Do you regularly use pre-mixed packaged ingredients?	Yes ☐	No ☐
Do you regularly have fresh vegetables?	Yes ☐	No ☐
Do you regularly have fresh fruit?	Yes ☐	No ☐
Do you find food expensive?	Yes ☐	No ☐
Do you have any difficulties preparing and cooking food?	Yes ☐	No ☐

If Yes to the last question what kind of difficulties?

____

____

Would you like some recipes? Yes ☐ No ☐

If Yes what kind of dishes? ☐ breakfast ☐ soups ☐ main meal ☐ sweet & puddings ☐ cakes & scones ☐ sweet biscuits ☐ savoury biscuits ☐ supper ☐ sandwiches

Thank you for your participation. A member of Care for the Elderly will collect this Survey next visit.

RESOURCE SHEET 1A: MODEL SURVEY

Title

Meal Survey

Purpose

Some elderly people find it difficult to prepare adequate meals for themselves. The following survey by the Care for the Elderly group aims to ask elderly people about their meal arrangements. The results will be used in a submission for continued funding by the local Council for their 'Meals at Home' program.

Questionnaire

Please tick the boxes for your answers. More than one box may be ticked if necessary:

Questions

Do you have an oven? ☐ gas ☐ electric ☐ microwave ☐ other ☐ no

How do you store food? ☐ cupboard ☐ fridge ☐ freezer ☐ other

Do you cook for any of the following meals?

☐ breakfast ☐ morning tea ☐ lunch ☐ tea ☐ dinner ☐ supper ☐ snacks

Do you enjoy cooking? Yes ☐ No ☐

Do you regularly use pre-cooked foods? Yes ☐ No ☐

Do you regularly use pre-mixed packaged ingredients? Yes ☐ No ☐

Do you regularly have fresh vegetables? Yes ☐ No ☐

Do you regularly have fresh fruit? Yes ☐ No ☐

Do you find food expensive? Yes ☐ No ☐

Do you have any difficulties preparing and cooking food? Yes ☐ No ☐

If Yes to the last question what kind of difficulties?

____

____

Would you like some recipes? Yes ☐ No ☐

If Yes what kind of dishes? ☐ breakfast ☐ soups ☐ main meal ☐ sweet & puddings ☐ cakes & scones

☐ sweet biscuits ☐ savoury biscuits ☐ supper ☐ sandwiches

Closure

Thank you for your participation. A member of Care for the Elderly will collect this Survey next visit.

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RESOURCE SHEET 2

Identification of Needs

Accessories for carrying goods

Who (carries the goods)?	**Robert**	**Rebecca**	**Rosemary**	**Geoffrey**
What goods do you need to carry?	Wood on the farm	School books	Portable computer	Portable telephone
What size are the goods?	Large as can be moved by hand	Big, bulky	Like big books	Hand-held, small and fits in my hand
What shape are the goods?	Logs and branches bulky	School books are squarish	Square	Long shape
What weight are the goods?	Very heavy	Heavy enough to get a sore hand	Light	Light
How often do you carry the goods?	At the weekend	Every day	Every day	Every day
Do the goods need to be carried in a special way?	So my clothes don't get too dirty	No	Carefully, breakable	Yes, might break
What problems do you have carrying the goods?	Grubby, splinters	Too heavy to carry on one shoulder or with one hand	Valuable expensive	Could drop it
What difference will meeting this need make to your lifestyle?	Will carry more wood more often	It will feel better	Will be more productive	You can always contact me
What part of your life does your need affect?	Home	Getting to school	Work and en route	All of them

RESOURCE SHEET 2A: NEEDS SURVEY PROFORMA

Identification of Needs

Accessories for carrying goods

Who (carries the goods)?	**Rebecca**	**Geoffrey**
What goods do you need to carry?		
What size are the goods?		
What shape are the goods?		
What weight are the goods?		
How often do you carry the goods?		
Do the goods need to be carried in a special way?		
What problems do you have carrying the goods?		
What difference will meeting this need make to your lifestyle?		
What part of your life does your need affect?		

RESOURCE SHEET 3

Teacher-led Construction: Version 1

Identification of Needs

Accessories for carrying goods

Who (carries the goods)?	**Rebecca**	**Geoffrey**
What goods do you need to carry?	School books	Portable telephone
What size are the goods?	Big, bulky	Hand-held, small and fits in my hand
What shape are the goods?	School books are squarish	Long-shaped telephone
What weight are the goods?	Heavy enough to get a sore hand	Light
How often do you carry the goods?	Every day	Every day
Do the goods need to be carried in a special way?	No	Yes, might break
What problems do you have carrying the goods?	Too heavy to carry on one shoulder or with one hand	Could drop it
What difference will meeting this need make to your lifestyle?	It will feel better and look nice	You can always contact me
What part of your life does your need affect?	Getting to school	All of them

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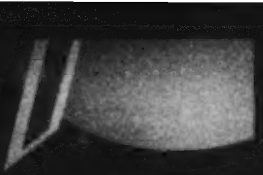
RESOURCE SHEET 3A:

Teacher-led Construction: Version 2

Identification of Needs Accessories for carrying goods		
Who (carries the goods)?	**Rebecca**	**Geoffrey**
What goods do you need to carry?	School books	Portable telephone
What size are the goods?	About the size of two bricks but not as heavy	Hand-held
What shape are the goods?	School books are squarish	Long–shaped telephone
What weight are the goods?	Heavy, causes discomfort	Light
How often do you carry the goods?	Every day	Every day
Do the goods need to be carried in a special way?	No	Yes, needs protection, fragile
What problems do you have carrying the goods?	May cause permanent back damage	Awkward, restricts hands
What difference will meeting this need make to your lifestyle?	Will be more comfortable, healthier for spine and look more attractive	More efficient use of time, safety
What part of your life does your need affect?	School and en route	All aspects



ACCESSING LEARNING

design and technology
part one - 2
describing

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PART ONE - 2 OVERVIEW - DESCRIBING

Introduces the concepts of design considerations, criteria and constraints. Students write a report describing design considerations for their own project.

	Content and Tasks	Assessment
Preparing the Context	Teacher questions students and establishes idea of design considerations.	Informal assessment
Developing the Context	Examines the interrelationship between design and the culture, and the concepts of general considerations and properties.	Formal assessment of students' ability to read and construct a taxonomy; Informal assessment of students' ability to move from everyday to technical language
Embedded Cycle	*Teacher introduces terms and definitions and develops definitions of design proposal, criteria and constraints.*	*Formal assessment of students' ability to write a succesful definition and knowledge of a range of definitions*
Modelling	Deconstruction of stages, examination of the function of vocabulary (lexical chains); reference; and connectives in a model report—*Designing a Tackle Bag to be Carried on a Bicycle*	Informal assessment of the students' ability to imitate the model
Teacher-led Construction	Teacher and students write a report—*Design Considerations for a Wallet.*	Informal assessment of the students' ability to make use of appropriate text stages and language choices
Student-led Construction	Students write reports on design considerations for their own projects.	Formal assessment of students' ability to apply knowledge of the subject content and to write a report, based on criteria established during the work.
Resource Sheets	Activity sheets,overhead transparency masters and resource sheets are grouped as Resource Sheets at the end of each Part.They are referred to by number in the text.	

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PART ONE – 2 - DESCRIBING

In this section students are introduced to the concept of design considerations.

PREPARING THE CONTEXT

The teacher gives the students a task to perform, for example to carry one dozen eggs. One student is chosen to do this, and the teacher asks class members to make suggestions as to how one dozen eggs can be carried.

The teacher discusses with the students the sorts of things that need to be considered (design considerations) their importance in the design process and why they need to be included in a folio.

DEVELOPING THE CONTEXT

In developing the context the teacher should consider the interrelationship between design and culture in the past and in the present.

The overhead transparencies selected for this section (pages 31-34) allow discussion of human impact as it relates to technology. You could copy these for use in the classroom or prepare new ones suited to your class

OHT NO.	SUGGESTED ISSUES
OHT 1	cultural environmental sustainability historical motivation
OHT 2	cultural gender quality
OHT 3	cultural gender historical
OHT 4	cultural environmental sustainability historical — ethics motivation

The teacher, using OHT 1, establishes general considerations in designing packs for carrying railway sleepers.

General considerations are elicited first and then corresponding properties are listed.

General Considerations	**Properties of Pack**
How big the sleepers are	size
How heavy the sleepers are	strength
How hot the desert is	climate
How strong the camels are	capacity
The fact that the camels have humps	shape
What materials are available	availability
What distance they had to go	durability
How the pack is attached to the camel	fastening
if the pack has to be closed	closure
How much money could be spent	cost

This enables students to move from everyday language to technical language. The teacher repeats the process with OHTs 2–4. The teacher chooses the most appropriate OHT to use and adds any new properties.

Next the teacher hands out copies of Resource Sheet 1, *Things to Consider in the Design Process* , and this is read to the class.

S/he then asks the students to underline words which seem technical.

The next step is to build a taxonomy (Resource Sheet 2) on the blackboard from the reading, with the students' assistance.

The teacher tells the students that a taxonomy organises information graphically so that we can see how things relate to each other at a glance. It is also a very useful way of taking notes in this subject and other subjects, such as Geography and Commerce, that organise information in this way.

EMBEDDED CYCLE — DEFINITIONS

At this point, the teacher moves out of the teaching/learning cycle and enters an embedded cycle on definitions.

Preparing the Context

The teacher introduces the term *definitions* and asks students what they think a definition is.

Developing the Context

The teacher explains that definitions provide the exact meaning of technical words.

Modelling

The teacher writes up the following model using words from the reading *Things to Consider in the Design Process*, and establishes stages of definitions:

Name ^ Class ^ Characteristics ^ (Examples)

Name	*Class*	*Characteristic*
A design proposal	*is a short, clear statement*	*of what a designer wants to make*

Teacher-led Construction

Together teacher and students write a definition.

Name	*Class*	*Characteristic*
Design criteria	*are the properties*	*which need to be considered for a design*

Sometimes an optional example may be attached at the end eg:

Name	*Class*	*Characteristic*	*Example*
Design criteria	*are the properties*	*which need to considered*	*Size and capacity for example*

Student-led Construction

Students now write definitions of *design constraints* for their own design proposal.

DEVELOPING THE CONTEXT (continued)

The teacher now returns to the original cycle and continues.

The teacher elicits from students design considerations for a wallet:

- What will be carried in it?
- Who will carry it?
- What sort of material will be used?
- What will the closing mechanism be?
- How many compartments will it have?
- How much would people be prepared to pay for it?
- What should it look like? (Aesthetic and function, eg safety triangle)
- How much is going to be carried in it?
- Where is it going to be carried? (pocket, handbag, hand)

The teacher writes the properties to be considered, based on the everyday questions above, on an OHT for later use in teacher-led construction.

MODELLING

The teacher puts up an OHT of Resource Sheet 3, *Designing a tackle bag to be carried on a bicycle*. Students are asked to consider why the writer has included each section of the report.

Using an overlay of Resource Sheet 3A the teacher helps the students identify the stages in the report.

In labelling the stages we use the generic theoretical labels in conjunction with a particular label that matches the purpose of the stage as seen in the classroom context. This approach is designed to assist students to become familiar with the terminology of the stages and to be able to apply their own terminology based on an understanding of the purpose of the stage.

Next the teacher develops the idea of lexical chains.

Using OHT of Resource Sheet 3A, circle all the words that relate to tackle bags with a coloured pen.

When you come to the word *it* in *Material: Salt-resistant material is essential to ensure that it doesn't rot*, put a circle around what *it* is referring to and draw an arrow linking the word back to *tackle bag* in the sentence above. See Resource Sheet 4.
Repeat the lexical chain exercise using the word *bicycle* and a different coloured pen. Lexical chains and reference words help the writer keep to the point, sometimes by repeating words, sometimes by using other words that relate, and sometimes by using substitute words like *it* or *they*. Resource Sheet 5.

Look at the words which have been circled in Resource Sheet 4. *A tackle bag* and *the tackle bag* refer not just to one individual tackle bag but to all the tackle bags the manufacturer will produce. In this kind of report writing it is often more appropriate to refer to general classes of things rather than individual things. In writing students must make conscious decisions about whether to use generalised or individual participants.

Connectives are another tool that help make writing join together and flow logically. They are words or groups of words that connect ideas together. Put up OHT of Resource Sheet 3 with the following connectives removed:

and
because
however
in addition
finally

Ask students what words are missing and what their functions are in the passage. For example, *because* shows a reason and *in addition* shows that more facts are being added. The use of connectives is important in reading, it helps predict what is coming next. When you write, connectives help you organise the information you want to present.

TEACHER-LED CONSTRUCTION

Teacher and students jointly construct a report, based on the notes taken in developing the context, on design considerations for a wallet.

As in Resource Sheets 3 – 6 the two issues of staging and choice of appropriate language need to be considered. In order to focus clearly on each, it is suggested that:

1. students are reminded of the relevant subject knowledge.

2. the generic stages of the model are used to help students contribute to writing Version 1 of the teacher-led construction appropriately staged;

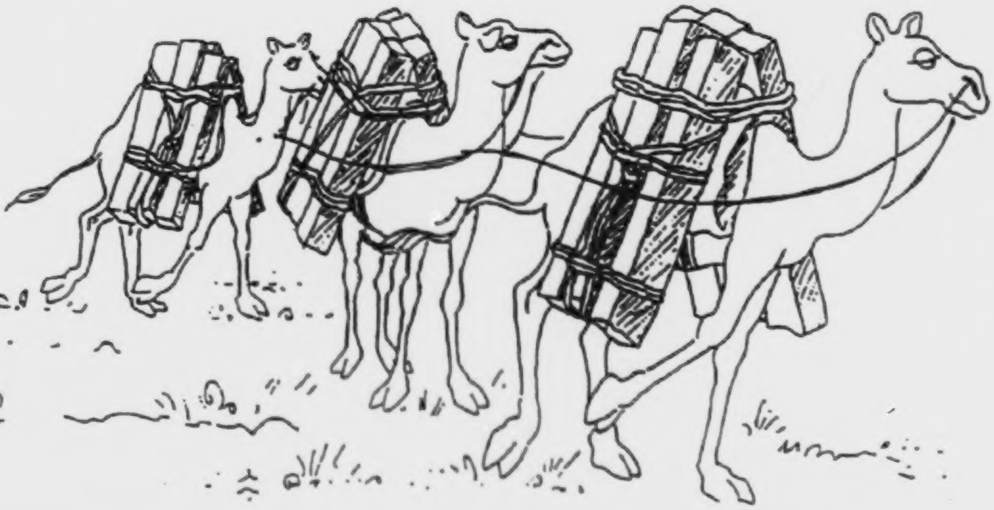
3. the teacher reminds students of the language features examined in the model.

4. students and teacher rewrite Version 1 to produce a more appropriately worded Version 2. See Resource Sheets 6 and 7.

Version 1 Correct staging **becomes**	**Version 2** Correct staging and appropriate language
When I go to school I have to carry bus pass, lunch money and keys.	A bus pass and lunch money and keys need to be carried by school students.
So I have to think about a number of things.	A number of things need to be considered.

STUDENT-LED CONSTRUCTION

Students are reminded about their own design needs and asked to write their own design proposals. Students draft, edit and revise their design proposals and place them in design folios.



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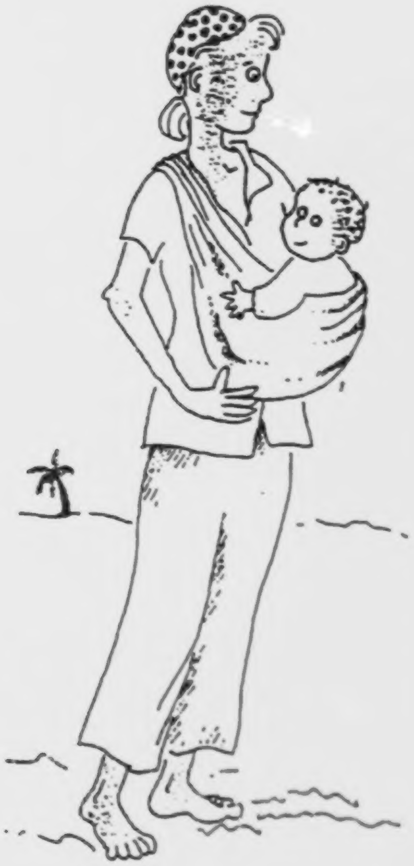

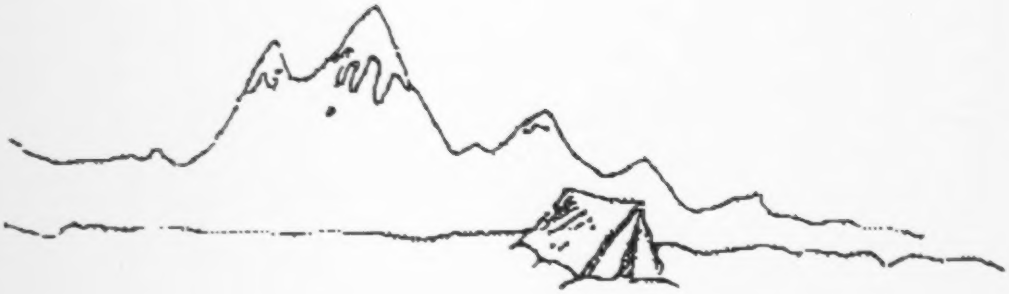

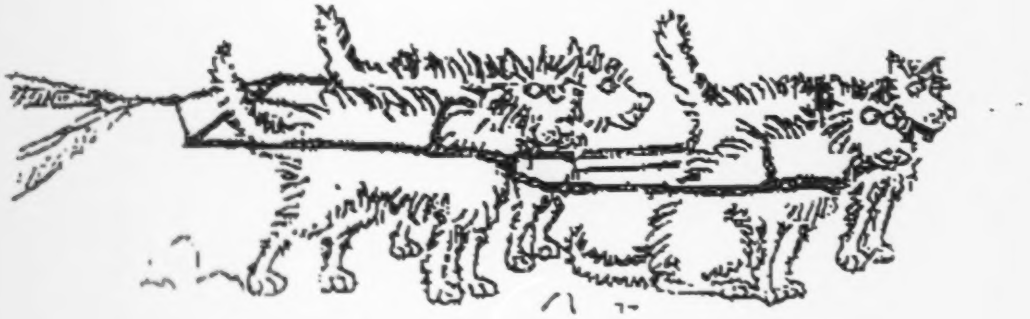

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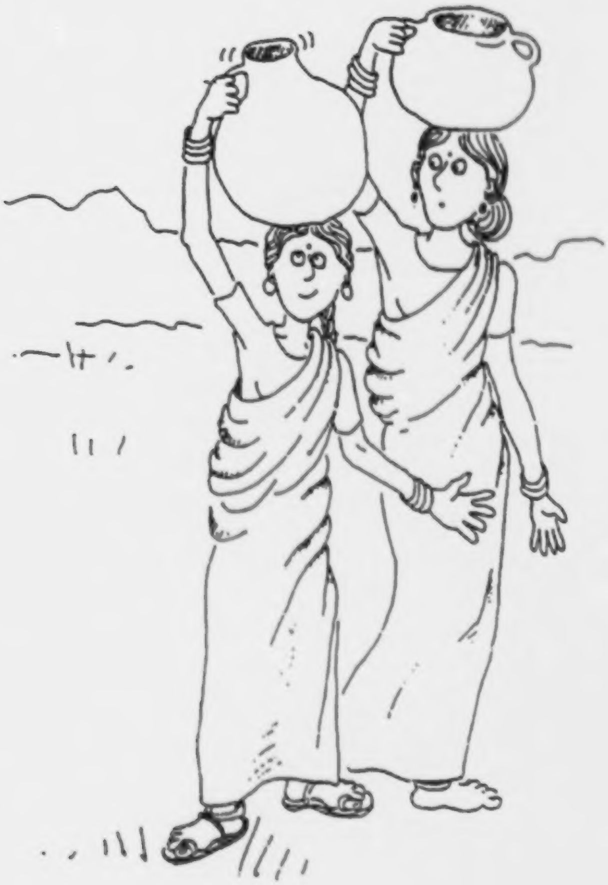


RESOURCE SHEET 1

Things to Consider in the Design Process

Design and technology are about finding solutions to meet people's needs.

When designers want to create a new design they develop a design proposal. This is done by examining the needs of the people who will use the product. This design proposal is a short, clear statement of what the designer wants to make.

The next step is to examine the many ideas which will affect how the product is to be designed.

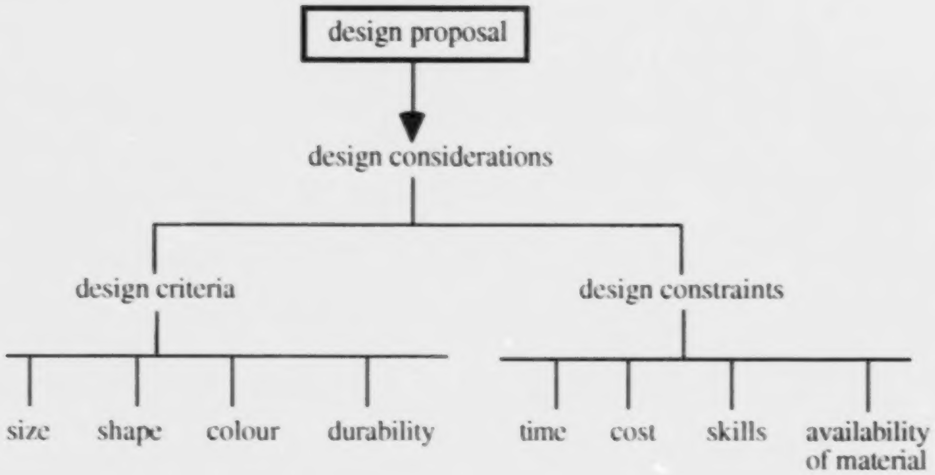
There are two kinds of design considerations, design criteria and design constraints.

Design criteria set out the properties of the product to be designed; for example, the size, the shape, colour and durability. In other words the design criteria determines the properties the design should have.

Design constraints put limits on the features of a product that can be designed; for example, the time available, the cost, the machinery available. That is, the design constraints determine the properties the design should not have.

RESOURCE SHEET 2

Taxonomy from *Things to Consider in the Design Process*


design proposal
design considerations
design criteria
design constraints
size
shape
colour
durability
time
cost
skills
availability of material

RESOURCE SHEET 3

Designing a tackle bag to be carried on a bicycle

It is difficult for an angler to carry a fishing rod and a tackle bag on a bicycle because of the length of the rod and the weight of the tackle bag.

The brief is to design a bag to carry a fishing rod and tackle on a bicycle.

The following important criteria need to be considered:

SIZE: The tackle bag must be sufficiently large for all the fishing equipment.

MATERIAL: Salt-resistant material is essential to ensure that it doesn't rot and that the fastenings don't rust. Moisture-resistant material ensures the bike rider's clothes stay dry.

CLOSURE: The contents of the bag need to be secure whether on the bicycle or being carried by hand.

However, there are also a number of design constraints:

The weight of the bag should not affect the balance of the bike. In addition the length of the rod must not restrict the pedalling movement or be a safety hazard by extending too far beyond the frame of the bike.

Finally, cost constraints limit the choice of materials.

RESOURCE SHEET 3A: STAGES

Designing a tackle bag to be carried on a bicycle

General Statement	It is difficult for an angler to carry a fishing rod and a tackle bag on a bicycle because of the length of the rod and the weight of the tackle bag.
General Statement	The brief is to design a bag to carry a fishing rod and tackle on a bicycle.
Description	The following important criteria need to be considered:
Design Criteria	SIZE: The tackle bag must be sufficiently large for all the fishing equipment. MATERIAL: Salt-resistant material is essential to ensure that it doesn't rot and that the fastenings don't rust. Moisture-resistant material ensures the bike rider's clothes stay dry. CLOSURE: The contents of the bag need to be secure whether on the bicycle or being carried by hand.
Description	However, there are also a number of design constraints:
Design Constraints	The weight of the bag should not affect the balance of the bike. In addition the length of the rod must not restrict the pedalling movement or be a safety hazard by extending too far beyond the frame of the bike. Finally, cost constraints limit the choice of materials.

RESOURCE SHEET 4

Designing a tackle bag to be carried on a bicycle

General Statement:	It is difficult for an angler to carry a fishing rod and a tackle bag on a bicycle because of the length of the rod and the weight of the tackle bag.
General Statement:	The brief is to design a bag to carry a fishing rod and tackle on a bicycle.
Description:	The following important criteria need to be considered:
Design Criteria:	SIZE: The tackle bag must be sufficiently large for all the fishing equipment. MATERIAL: Salt-resistant material is essential to ensure that it doesn't rot and that the fastenings don't rust. Moisture-resistant material ensures the bike rider's clothes stay dry. CLOSURE: The contents of the bag need to be secure whether on the bicycle or being carried by hand.
Description:	However, there are also a number of design constraints:
Design Constraints:	The weight of the bag should not affect the balance of the bike. In addition the length of the rod must not restrict the pedalling movement or be a safety hazard by extending too far beyond the frame of the bike. Finally, cost constraints limit the choice of materials.

RESOURCE SHEET 5

Designing a tackle bag to be carried on a bicycle.

General Statement: It is difficult for an angler to carry a fishing rod and a tackle bag on a bicycle because of the length of the rod and the weight of the tackle bag.

General Statement: The brief is to design a bag to carry a fishing rod and tackle on a bicycle.

Description: The following important criteria need to be considered:

Design Criteria

SIZE:	The tackle bag must be sufficiently large for all the fishing equipment.
MATERIAL:	Salt resistant material is essential to ensure that it doesn't rot and that the fastenings don't rust. Moisture resistant material ensures the bike rider's clothes stay dry.
CLOSURE:	The contents of the bag need to be secure whether on the bicycle or being carried.

Description: However, there are also a number of design constraints:

Design Constraints The weight of the bag should not affect the balance of the bike. In addition, the length of the rod must not restrict the pedalling movement or be a safety hazard by extending too far beyond the frame of the bike.

Finally, cost constraints limit the choice of materials.

RESOURCE SHEET 6

Teacher-led Construction: Version 1

Design Considerations for a Wallet

General Statement:	When I go to school I have to carry my bus pass, lunch money and my keys. Sometimes, when they are at the bottom of my bag, all separate, it's hard for me to find them.
General Statement:	I want to design a wallet that can carry my house keys, bus pass and lunch money in it.
Description:	So I have to think about a number of things. It has to be big enough to fit everything. I have to be able to quickly show my bus pass to the bus driver. I don't want my money to fall out of my wallet. I have to be able to open the door with the key still attached to the wallet.
Description:	I've only got $10 to spend on making the wallet. It can't be bigger than my pocket or tear it because it is too heavy.

RESOURCE SHEET 7

Teacher-led Construction: Version 2

A bus pass, lunch money and keys need to be carried by school students. They have difficulty in finding these items when they are loose at the bottom of a school bag.

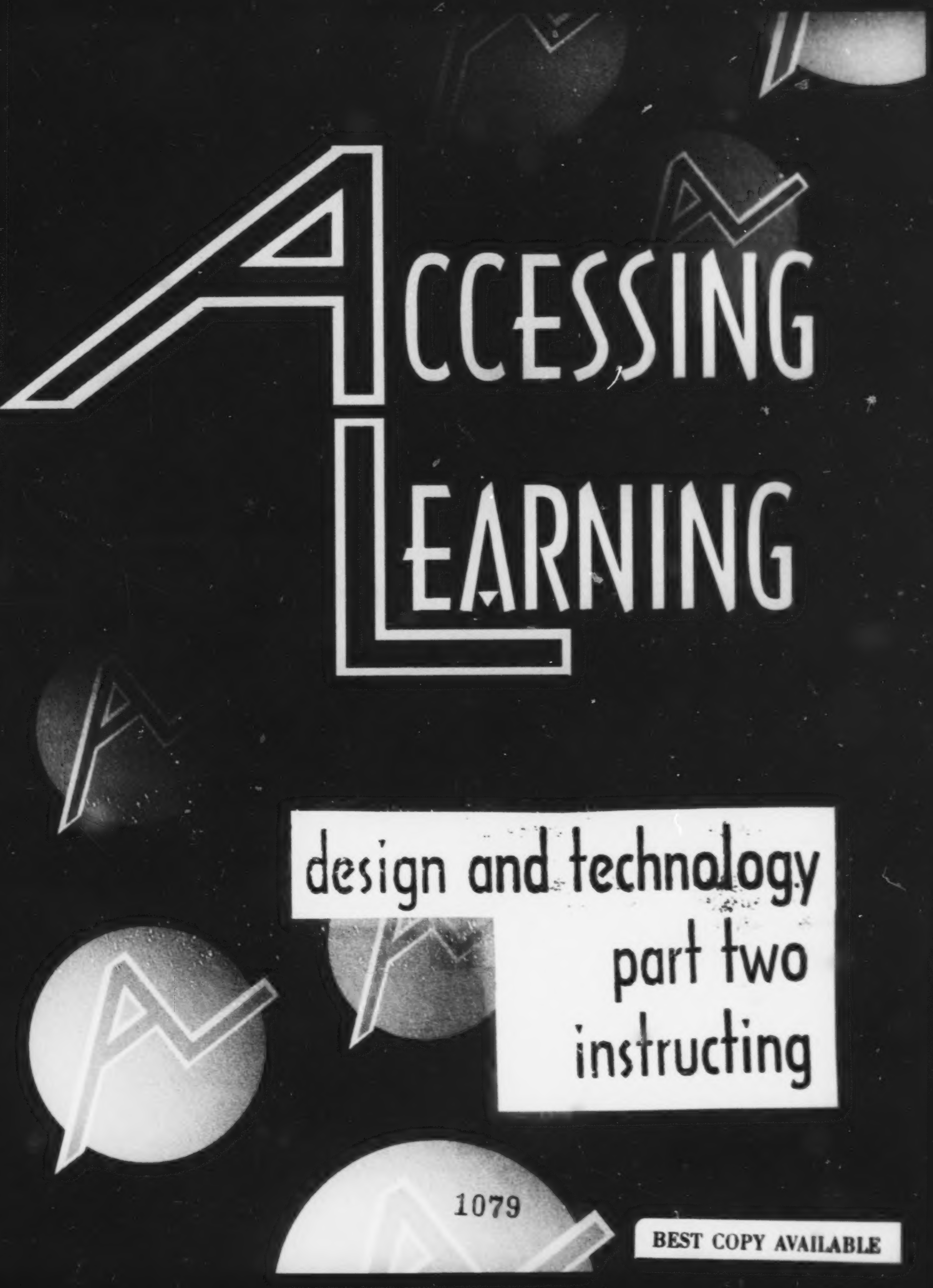
The design proposal is to design a wallet that can carry home keys, bus pass and lunch money.

A number of things need to be considered:

Capacity	The capacity of the wallet should fit all the items.
Visibility	The bus pass must be easily visible
Security	The money must be secure
Flexibility	The key attachment needs to be flexible enough to allow the key to be used while still attached to the wallet.

However, there are also a number of design constraints.

The cost of the wallet should not exceed $10. In addition the size of the wallet is limited to pocket-size and finally, the weight must not cause the clothing to tear.



ACCESSING LEARNING

design and technology
part two
instructing

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PART TWO OVERVIEW - INSTRUCTING

Investigates the processes involved in the manufacture of an appropriate product.

	Content and Tasks	Assessment
Preparing the Context	Explores the concept of steps/stages in a process.	Informal assessment of students' understanding
Developing the Context	Teacher uses strategies—guest speakers, videos, kits, and texts—to describe making different carrying accessories.	Informal assessment
Modelling	Model process *Making a Handy Bag*, and language activities: sequencing sentences, cloze, and reading graphics	Informal assessment
Teacher-led Construction	Teacher and students write a procedure for making a surfboard cover	Informal assessment of the students' ability to use appropriate text stages and language choices
Student-led Construction	Students write a procedure for making the carrying accessory in their design proposal.	Formal assessment of the students' ability to apply knowledge of subject and procedure writing.
Resource Sheets	Activity sheets and resource sheets are grouped as Resource Sheets at the end of each Part. They are referred to by number in the text.	

PART TWO - INSTRUCTING

PREPARING THE CONTEXT

The teacher develops through discussion with students the concept of steps/stages in any process.

Elicit from the students the need to:

- determine the procedure;
- plan the steps to follow; and
- order the steps to complete the task successfully.

DEVELOPING THE CONTEXT

In this section the teacher could use a range of strategies.

1. **Guest speaker**

   A guest speaker from a local industry could be invited to explain the process of designing, making and evaluating a carrying accessory.

   - A company which manufactures surfboard covers (eg Mambo).
   - A company which manufactures backpacks (eg Paddy Pallin).
   - A craftperson who makes his/her baskets (local craft market stall-holders)

2. **Visits**

   A visit to industry to observe the process of designing and making a carrying accessory.

3. **Videos**

   Videos that describe a manufacturing process could be shown, for example *The making of an Aboriginal coiled basket*, from Aboriginal Studies Dept, Museum of Victoria, 328 Swanston Street, Melbourne Vic. 3000. Ph: (03) 669 9002 Fax (03) 663 3669.

4. **Kits**

Plastics Material Identification Kit from NSW Plastics and Rubber Industry Training Council Ltd, PO Box 106, Revesby, NSW, 2211. Ph: (02) 771 2215, Fax: (02) 771 3957. This organisation also provides guest speakers.

5. **Texts**

Many examples can be found in textbooks which show students how to make things.

MODELLING

The teacher shows an OHT of Resource Sheet 1, *Making a Handy Bag*, and deconstructs it with the students, identifying the different stages (Resource Sheet 2A).

Language task

Cut up the stages of the model and ask students to re-assemble the pieces in the correct order.

Cut out individual sentences in the steps stage of the model and ask the students to re-assemble them.

Cut out the graphics of the steps and ask the students to match them to the correct direction – Resource Sheets 2B and C.

Fill in the cloze passage, Resource Sheet 3.

Discuss with the students the fact that the Themes in this procedure are all verbs.

TEACHER-LED CONSTRUCTION

Together the students and teacher describe the stages in making a surfboard cover. The teacher provides a picture of the finished product on OHT.

Version 1 becomes	**Version 2**
Making a surfboard cover	How to make a surfboard cover
with the fabric, cut it...	Cut out the fabric

Extended examples of Versions 1 and 2 are provided in Resource Sheets 4, 5A and 5B.

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STUDENT-LED CONSTRUCTION

Students now write a procedure for making the carrying accessory chosen in their design proposal.

In order to do this, they will need to return to developing the context to research the requirements and steps for making **their** carrying accessory.

RESOURCE SHEET 1

Model Procedure

Making a Handy Bag

40 cm x 115 cm wide fabric, eg canvas, hessian
1 reel matching polyester/cotton thread
pattern pieces
drawstring, eg sailor's cord
design ideas
fabric paint

1. Pin the pattern on the fabric and cut the fabric to the size required by the pattern.
2. Apply design in selected position.
   Allow painted designs to dry. Press with hot iron to set dye.
3. Place right sides of bag pieces together and pin. Machine sides and bottom of bag. Neaten edges with zigzag.
4. Turn down hem around top opening to make casing for drawstring; turn under 0.5 cm, then 2 cm hem. Pin.
5. Machine around the top edge 0.3 cm from the folded edge. Machine around the hem edge, leaving an opening to thread drawstring through.

This bag could be used for daily clothes, swimming gear, roller blades.

RESOURCE SHEET 2A

Stages

Making a Handy Bag

Goal

Making a Handy Bag

Materials

40 cm x 115 cm wide fabric, canvas, hessian
1 reel matching polyester/cotton thread
pattern pieces
drawstring, eg sailor's cord
design ideas
fabric paint

Steps

1. Pin the pattern on the fabric and cut the fabric to the size required by the pattern.
2. Apply design in selected position.
Allow painted designs to dry. Press with hot iron to set dye.
3. Place right sides of bag pieces together and pin. Machine sides and bottom of bag. Neaten edges with zigzag.
4. Turn down hem around top opening to make casing for drawstring; turn under 0.5 cm, then 2 cm hem. Pin.
5. Machine around the top edge 0.3 cm from the folded edge. Machine around the hem edge, leaving an opening to thread drawstring through.

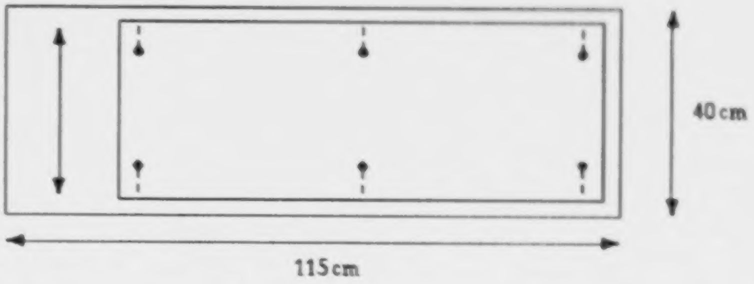
Note

This bag could be used for daily clothes, swimming gear, roller blades.

RESOURCE SHEET 2B

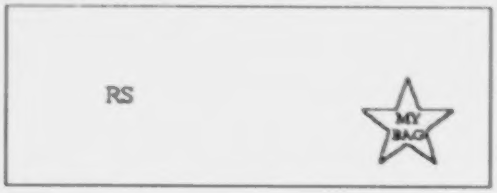
Making a Handy Bag: Steps

1.

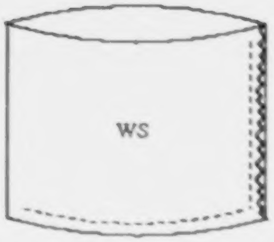


RS = Right Side
WS = Wrong Side

2.



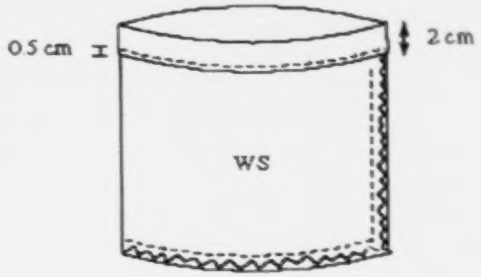
3.



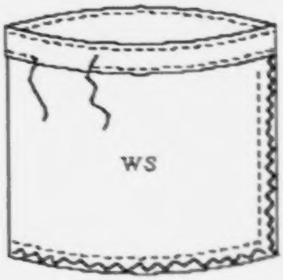
RESOURCE SHEET 2C

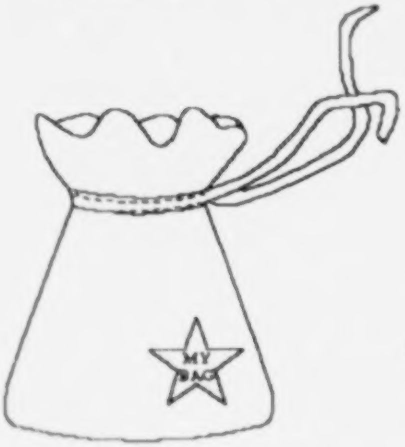
Making a Handy Bag: Steps (Continued)

4.



5.





Finished Product

RESOURCE SHEET 3

Cloze

1. .... the pattern on the fabric and cut the fabric to the size required on the pattern.

2. .... design in selected position.

.... painted designs to dry. ....with hot iron to set dye.

3. .... right sides of bag pieces together and pin.

.... sides and bottom of bag. Neaten edges with zigzag.

4. .... down hem around top opening to make casing for drawstring, eg turn under 0.5 cm, then 2 cm hem. Pin.

2. ....around the top edge 0.3 cm from the folded edge.

.... around the hem edge, leaving an opening to thread drawstring through.

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RESOURCE SHEET 4

Teacher-led Construction: Version 1

How to make a surfboard cover

Thread
Cotton fabric: 2 m x 115 cm
Scissors
Pins
Drawstring: 1 m.
Cotton tape for handles: 2 m.
Sewing machine

1. Cut out the fabric to the size required.
2. The right sides of fabric should be placed together.
3. Pin fabric pieces together.
4. The edges are then machine-stitched.
5. Neaten edges with zigzag.
6. The hem edge is turned over to form a casing.
7. Machine-stitch the casing, leaving an opening for the drawstring.
8. Thread drawstring through.

RESOURCE SHEET 5A

Teacher-Led Construction: Version 2

How to make a surfboard cover

Goal

How to make a surfboard cover

Materials

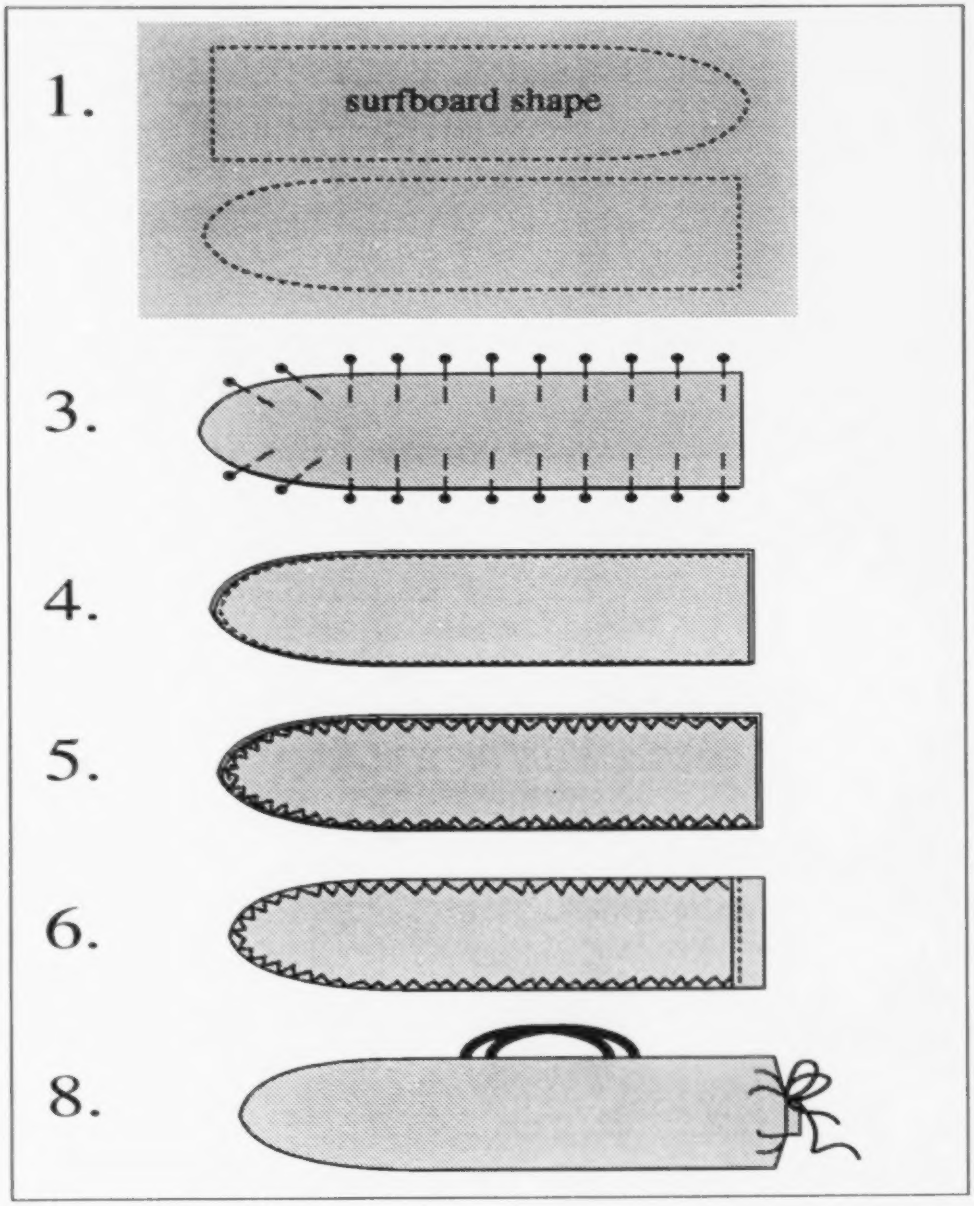
thread
cotton fabric: 2 m x 115 cm
scissors
pins
drawstring 1 m
cotton tape for handles: 2 m
sewing machine

Steps

1. Cut out the fabric to the size required.
2. Place right sides of fabric together.
3. Pin fabric pieces together.
4. Machine-stitch edges.
5. Neaten edges with zigzag.
6. Turn over the hem edge to form a casing.
7. Machine-stitch the casing, leaving an opening for the drawstring.
8. Thread drawstring through.

RESOURCE SHEET 5B

Making a surfboard cover: steps


1.
surfboard shape
3.
4.
5.
6.
8.

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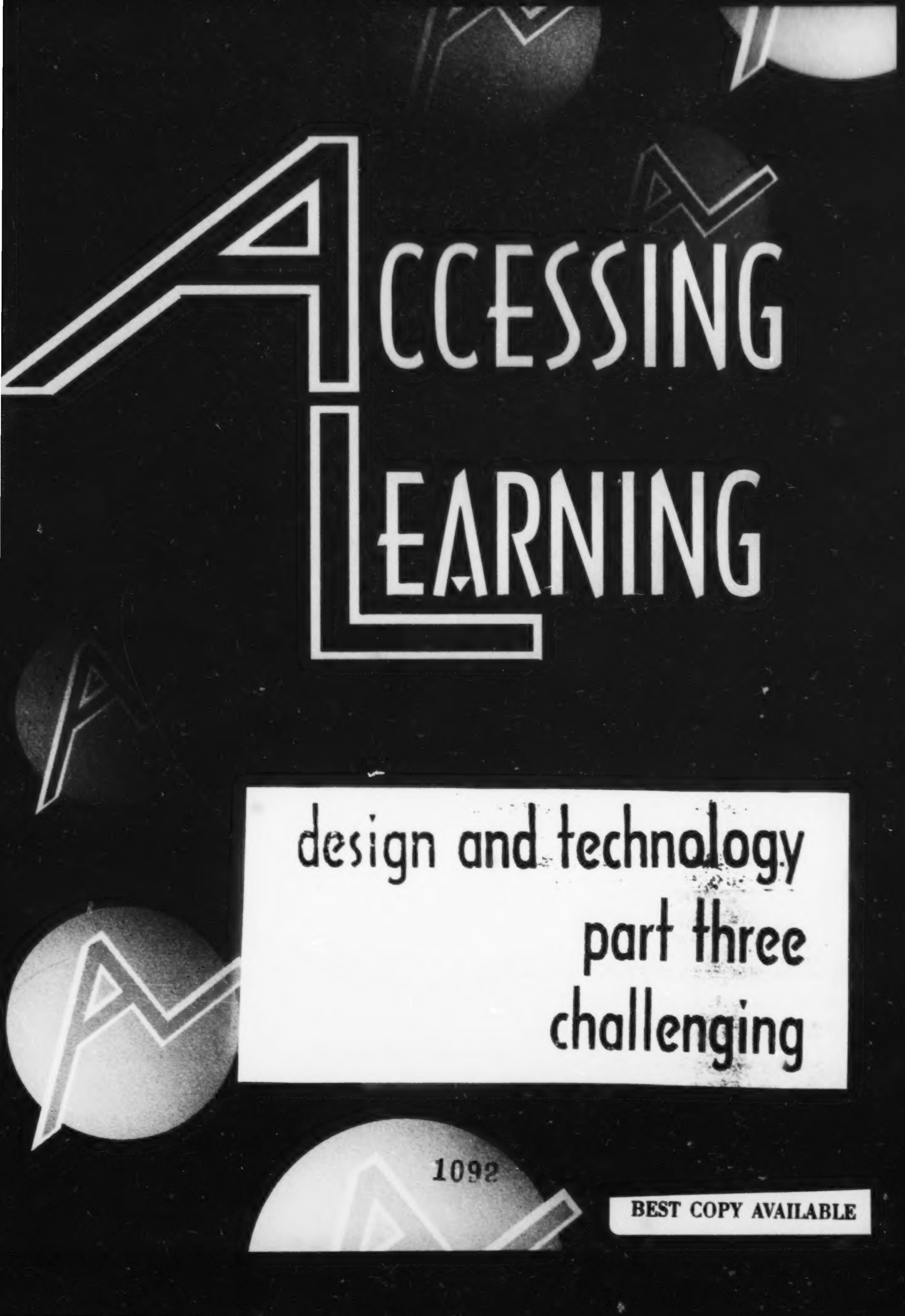

ACCESSING LEARNING

design and technology part three challenging

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PART THREE OVERVIEW - CHALLENGING

Students design a test for evaluating materials and evaluate and select materials to use in the carrying accessory.

	Content and Tasks	Assessment
Preparing the Context	Discussion of choosing materials for a project	Informal assessment of students' understanding of suitability of material as an issue in a design brief
Embedded Cycle Testing Properties	*Teacher and students test materials and devise and practise product test matrix.*	*Informal assessment*
Modelling	Teacher provides a model *Evaluation of Materials* and students examine the language and structure.	Informal assessment
Teacher-led Construction	Teacher and students jointly construct an evaluation of whether the material, plastic, meets criteria for a tackle bag.	Informal assessment of the students' ability to construct an evaluation using the appropriate text stages and language features
Student-led Construction	Students write evaluations of the materials selected for their own carrying accessories.	Formal assessment of the work.
Resource Sheets	Activity sheets and resource sheets are grouped as Resource Sheets at the end of each Part. They are referred to by number in the text.	

PART THREE - CHALLENGING

PREPARING THE CONTEXT

In other parts of this unit the students have worked through the following:

- identifying a need and writing a design proposal with criteria and constraints; and
- investigating the processes involved in manufacturing similar products.

The teacher and students now discuss choosing materials in making a product. The teacher should make the following points:

- when you make a product for carrying goods you need to decide which materials will work best according to your design criteria;
- when you choose materials you need to think about their properties — how they behave and can be used;
- once you know the properties of a material, you can decide whether that material will be suitable for your product. The material must help with your design or meet the design criteria you have set in your design brief.

DEVELOPING THE CONTEXT

In this section the students and teacher investigate the properties of materials to decide which materials will help meet the design criteria.

EMBEDDED CYCLE — TESTING PROPERTIES

Preparing the Context

The teacher explains the need to examine a number of materials and elicits suggestions from the class.

Developing the Context

Using a range of sample materials, discuss the properties of each, for example:

Material	Property
leather	durability
plastic film	non-durability
neoprene	elasticity
wood	non-elasticity
plastic sheeting	moisture resistance
cotton (terry towelling)	moisture absorbency

Properties were discussed in Part One-2. Remind the students of the criteria there for making a tackle bag: size, closure and material. The focus for the following section is material. The properties of material for the body of the tackle bag and its fastening were determined as:

moisture resistance
salt resistance
stain resistance
durability.

Modelling

The teacher now demonstrates testing terry towelling for these properties. During the testing procedure, the teacher develops the chart on Resource Sheet 1, which is used to model for students the writing-up of test results. A matrix which shows the elements of a test results chart is also shown on Resource Sheet 1 as a model. Cut it up and ask students to re-assemble it in pairs so they can demonstrate they understand the elements needed to testing properties.

Language activity

Ask students for any other ways the testing procedure could be documented.

What word appears first in the Method section? .... verb.

What word appears first in the Result section? .... noun.

Why do you think this happens?

The teacher points out that these words are first because in the Method section the action is more important; in the Results section what happens to the fabric is more important.

Teacher-led Construction

Using the previous model, the teacher selects another material which could be used for the product, eg plastic, and tests it. The teacher and students together observe and describe the results. The teacher accepts a range of student answers and negotiates with the students as to the best answer to place in the chart. Here is an example of the final version.

The material is strong plastic sheeting (garbage bag)	Control	Test 1		Test 2	
		Process	Results	Process	Results
Property 1: moisture resistance	Smooth, shiny, dry	Pour water on surface	Water runs off	Soak plastic in bucket of water	Water drips off plastic — plastic is dry
Property 2: stain resistance (rust)	"	Lay nails on surface	Rust stains wash off	Wrap plastic around iron object	Rust stains only after two days
Property 3: durability	"	Rub against brick wall	Plastic scratches and tears lightly	Pull plastic apart	Plastics stretches a little
Property 4: salt resistance	"	Sprinkle with salt	Salt washes off — no effect	Soak in salt water	Plastic dries — no effect

Student-led Construction

The students now select the material they consider appropriate for their own carrying accessory and test the properties stated in their design proposal.

At this point, the teacher should lead the students through a series of tests to determine appropriate tools and techniques for working with the materials chosen, for example cutting, joining, decorating and finishing.

MODELLING

Using the terry towelling model from the embedded cycle on materials testing, discuss with the students whether the material meets the criteria set for the design product. Explain why. Show an OHT of model evaluation (Resource Sheet 2) and deconstruct stages and language features with students. Although evaluation of a material is a genre of the macro-function challenging, its purpose is not to argue or persuade but to test. Therefore the labels of the stages are different.

Language activity

Have students underline the Theme of each sentence. What is it? What does this tell you about the evaluation model?

Point out that the Theme for each sentence is a non-human participant, eg the fabric, moisture resistance, terrytowelling etc, which is consistent with the topic and highlights the point that properties and materials are the key participants in the evaluation.

TEACHER-LED CONSTRUCTION

The teacher and students jointly construct an evaluation of whether the material plastic meets the criteria for a tackle bag.

A student version of the evaluation of the property ***moisture resistance*** is shown (Resource Sheet 3). Other properties (Resource Sheet 4) have not been developed in the student version.

Note the move from personal to impersonal language and informal to formal language in Version 2 (Resource Sheet 4).

Version 1	**becomes** **Version 2**
alright to make	suitable
we found... were there	The properties... were evident
we tested water resistance	moisture resistance was tested...

STUDENT-LED CONSTRUCTION

The students now independently write evaluations of the materials selected for their own carrying accessory.

Continuing the project

This unit of *Accessing Learning* takes students part of the way through the design process. For further ideas about this design project, teachers may wish to refer to the unit of work "Carry It" in the Board of Studies, NSW Design & Technology Year 7–10 teaching materials from which this unit was developed.

RESOURCE SHEET 1

Test Results Chart

Terry towelling	Control	Test 1			Test 2		
		Method	Result	Conclusion	Method	Result	Conclusion
Property: moisture-resistance	Dry and fluffy	Pour water on fabric	Fabric absorbs moisture	Material is not moisture-resistant	Put outside in rain	Fabric absorbs moisture	Material is not moisture-resistant
Property: stain-resistance	Dry and fluffy	Wrap fabric around iron object, eg fence	Fabric marked by rust	Material is not stain-resistant	Place iron nails on damp fabric	Rust marking	Material is not stain-resistant

Stages

	Testing Materials		Test 1	Test 2
Categories	name of material	control prior to testing	process results	process results
Test description and results	property to be tested	description of process	description of results	description of results

RESOURCE SHEET 2

Model Evaluation of Materials

Title	Evaluation of terry towelling
Thesis	Are moisture resistance and stain resistance properties of terry towelling ?
Moisture resistance Test 1	Moisture resistance was tested by pouring water on the fabric.
Result 1	The water was absorbed by the fabric.
Moisture resistance Test 2	The fabric was left outside in the rain.
Result 2	The moisture was absorbed by the fabric.
Conclusion	Terry towelling is not moisture-resistant.
Stain resistance Test 1	Stain resistance was tested by wrapping fabric around an iron fence and leaving it overnight.
Result 1	The fabric showed evidence of rust marking.
Stain resistance Test 2	Stain resistance was tested by placing iron nails on the surface of a damp fabric.
Result 2	Rust stains were evident on the fabric.
Conclusion	Terry towelling is not stain-resistant.
Final Conclusion	The testing of the properties of moisture resistance and stain resistance in terry towelling shows that it is unsuitable for a tackle bag.

RESOURCE SHEET 3

Teacher-led Construction, Version 1

Thesis	We wanted to know if strong plastic was alright to make our tackle bag.
	We found moisture resistance, stain resistance, durability and salt resistance were there.
Moisture resistance Test 1	We tested water resistance by pouring water on the surface of the plastic.
Result 1	The water ran off the plastic.
Moisture resistance Test 2	We soaked the plastic in a bucket of water.
Result 2	It dripped off the plastic and stayed dry.
Conclusion	We found plastic was moisture-resistant.

RESOURCE SHEET 4 Teacher-led Construction Version 2

Thesis	Is plastic suitable for a tackle bag? Moisture resistance, stain resistance, durability, and salt resistance are properties of plastic.
Moisture resistance Test 1	Moisture resistance was tested by pouring water on the surface of the plastic.
Result 1	The water ran off the plastic.
Moisture resistance Test 2	The plastic was soaked in a bucket of water.
Result 2	Water dripped off the plastic, which remained dry.
Conclusion	Plastic is completely moisture-resistant.
Stain resistance Test 1	Stain resistance was tested by laying nails on the surface of the plastic.
Result 1	Rust stains appeared on the plastic but were easily washed off.
Stain resistance Test 2	The plastic was wrapped around an iron fence and left overnight.
Result 2	Rust stains appeared on the plastic but only after two days.
Conclusion	Plastic is stain-resistant.
Durability Test 1	Durability was tested by rubbing plastic against a brick wall.
Result 1	The plastic showed some scratches and tore slightly.
Durability Test 2	The plastic was tested by pulling it apart.
Result 2	The plastic was stretched but not split.
Conclusion	Strong plastic is moderately durable.
Salt resistance Test 1	Salt was placed on the plastic.
Result 1	The salt washed off the plastic. There was no effect on the plastic.
Salt resistance Test 2	The plastic was soaked in salt water.
Result 2	There was no effect on the plastic when it dried.
Conclusion	Strong plastic is not affected by salt.
	The testing of the properties of moisture resistance, stain resistance, durability, and salt resistance showed that plastic is a material which meets the criteria set for the tackle bag.

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